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PELICAN ISLAND.

On the Wabash.

THE
PEOPLE'S HOME BOOK:

AN

INSTRUCTIVE AND INTERESTING

COLLECTION OF

ILLUSTRATED MISCELLANY,

DESIGNED FOR

POPULAR READING:

EMBRACING

HISTORICAL EVENTS, GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTIONS, SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERIES, PERSONAL
NARRATIVES, INSTRUCTIVE BIOGRAPHIES, MAGNIFICENT CREATIONS OF
ART, SUBLIME OPERATIONS OF NATURE, ANTIQUITIES OF
ANCIENT, AND RELICS OF FEUDAL TIMES.

WITH

ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY ILLUSTRATIONS,

REPRESENTING

CITIES, LANDSCAPES, CASTLES, MARINE VIEWS, AQUEDUCTS, VIADUCTS, BRIDGES,
MANUFACTORIES, PALACES, CHURCHES, MONASTERIES, ANTIQUITIES
AND DEVELOPMENTS IN THE ANIMAL
AND VEGETABLE KINGDOMS.

BY THOMAS H. PRESCOTT, A. M.

COLUMBUS:

PUBLISHED AND SOLD EXCLUSIVELY BY SUBSCRIPTION,
BY J. & H. MILLER & CO.

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## P R E F A C E.

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CURIOSITY is an element of our nature, and is never more wisely employed than in scanning those works of Nature or Art which correct the taste, improve the morals, or refine the feelings. Travel furnishes undoubtedly the best means of gratifying this element, and consequently would best accomplish the objects, did it not also bring us in contact with much calculated to degrade, corrupt, and blunt; besides, but few persons have the means of gratifying curiosity in this manner, and even if they had, Travel could only furnish the present, the actual—leaving much to be derived from Description and Illustration. The object of this work is—to supply the deficiencies of Travel to those who can roam, and to furnish more than its advantages to those who cannot. We have culled over the entire productions of those who have preceded us—endeavored to retouch their beauties and reject their defects, and here present the result of our labors in a combination of gems and flowers. We have visited every field of human exploration, and have gathered something to adorn our volume and interest our readers.

ARCHITECTURE, BIOGRAPHY, HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, and other Sciences, have each contributed their portion of



the materials, and we now present the whole,—in a garb we trust by no means distasteful,—to the reader for his amusement and instruction. We trust that the diligent reader of the following pages will realize that his time has been not only profitably, but agreeably spent; and that he will arise from their perusal not merely a happier, but an abler man. To a rational mind, that amusement soon cloyes which does not instruct as well as delight,—to obtain both these results has been our object, and we hope we have not been entirely unsuccessful.



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# HOME BOOK

OF

## ILLUSTRATED MISCELLANY.

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### THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

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**J**APAN was first made known to Europeans by MARCO POLO. This intelligent old Venetian traveler resided for many years at the court of the great Kublia Khan, the conqueror of China. Being in much favor with the emperor, and employed in missions that led him to take extensive journeys throughout the Mongol empire, he obtained a knowledge of many parts of the world of which Europeans were quite ignorant; and it is affirmed "that if the name of a discoverer of Asia were to be assigned to any person, nobody would better deserve it." Marco Polo did not visit Japan. He could therefore only describe it from such reports as were made to him. He calls Japan, Zipangu, a name supposed to be formed from the Japanese Dshi-penkue, or, as Charlevoix gives it in French, "Gepuan-que," the meaning of which is, "The kingdom or empire of, or towards, the rising sun." We have evidently got Japan from the same word. Marco Polo's account of Japan, or Zipangu, is interesting, and we therefore give it from Mr. Marsden's translation.

"Zipangu is an island in the Eastern ocean, situated at the distance of about 1500 miles from the mainland, or coast of Manji.\* It is of considerable size; its inhabitants have fair complexions, are well made, and are civilized in their manners. Their religion is the worship of idols. They are independent of every foreign power, and governed only by their own kings. They have gold in the greatest abundance, its sources being inexhaustible; but as the king does not allow of its being exported, few merchants visit the country, nor is it frequented by much shipping from other parts. To this circumstance we are to attribute the extraordinary richness of the sovereign's palace, according to what we are told by those who have

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\* "The distance of the nearest part of the southern island from the coast of China, near Ning-po, not being more than 500 Italian miles, we may suppose that our author, in stating it at 1500, speaks of Chinese miles, or li, which are in the proportion of one-third of the former."—*Translator's Note.*



access to the place. The entire roof is covered with a plating of gold, in the same manner as we cover houses, or more properly churches, with lead. The ceilings of the halls are of the same precious metal; many of the apartments have small tables of pure gold, considerably thick; and the windows also have golden ornaments. So vast indeed are the riches of the palace, that it is impossible to give an idea of them. In this island there are pearls also in large quantities, of a red (pink) color, round in shape, and of great size; equal in value to, or even exceeding, that of the white pearls. It is customary with one part of the inhabitants to bury their dead, and with another part to burn them. The former have a practice of putting one of these pearls into the mouth of the corpse. There are also found there a number of precious stones.

"Of so great celebrity was the wealth of this island, that a desire was excited in the breast of the grand Khan Kublai, now reigning, to make the conquest of it, and to annex it to his dominions. In order to effect this, he fitted out a numerous fleet, and embarked a large body of troops, under the command of two of his principal officers. The expedition sailed from the ports of Zaitun and Kinsai, (Zaitun is probably Amoy, and Kinsai the port of Ning-po, or of Chu-san), and crossing the intermediate sea, reached the island in safety; but in consequence of a jealousy that arose between the two commanders, one of whom treated the plans of the other with contempt, and resisted the execution of his orders, they were unable to gain possession of any city or fortified place, with the exception of one only, which was carried by assault, the garrison having refused to surrender. Directions were given for putting the whole to the sword, and in obedience thereto the heads of all were cut off, excepting eight persons, who, by the efficacy of a diabolical charm, consisting of a jewel or amulet introduced into the right arm, between the skin and the flesh, were rendered secure from the effects of iron, either to kill or wound. Upon this discovery being made, they were beaten with a heavy wooden club, and presently died. (The idea, says Mr. Marsden, of being rendered invulnerable by the use of amulets, is common amongst the natives of the Eastern islands.)

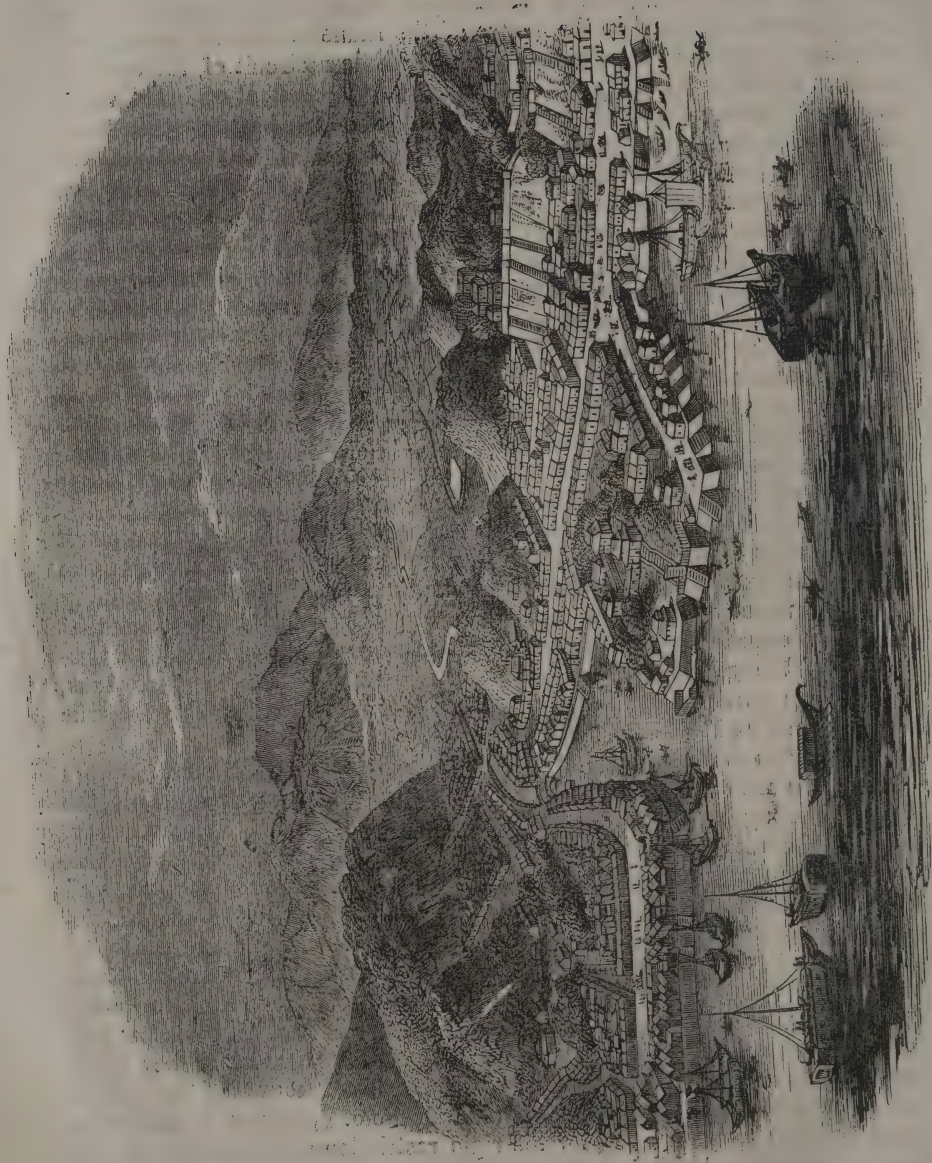
"It happened after some time that a north wind began to blow with great force, and the ships of the Tartars, which lay near the shore of the island, were driven foul of each other. It was determined, therefore, in a council of the officers on board, that they ought to disengage themselves from the land; and accordingly, as soon as the troops were reembarked, they stood out to sea. The gale, however, increased to so violent a degree that a number of the vessels foundered. The people belonging to them, by floating upon pieces of the wreck, saved themselves upon an island lying about four miles from the coast of Zipangu. The other ships, which, not being so near the land, did not suffer from the storm, and on which the two chiefs were embarked, together with the principal officers, or those whose rank entitled them to command an hundred thousand or ten thousand men, directed their course homewards, and returned to the grand Khan. Those of the Tartars who remained upon the island where they were wrecked, and who amounted to about thirty thousand men, finding themselves left without shipping, abandoned by their leaders, and having neither arms nor provisions, expected nothing less than to become captives or to perish, especially as the island afforded no habitations where they

could take shelter and refresh themselves. As soon as the gale ceased and the sea became smooth and calm, the people from the mainland of Zipangu came over with a large force in numerous boats, in order to make prisoners of the shipwrecked Tartars, and having landed, proceeded in search of them, but in a straggling, disorderly manner. The Tartars, on their part, acted with prudent circumspection, and being concealed from view by some high land in the centre of the island, whilst the enemy were hurrying in pursuit of them by one road, made a circuit of the coast by another, which brought them to the place where the fleet of boats was at anchor. Finding these all abandoned, with colors flying, they instantly seized them, and pushing off from the island, stood for the principal city of Zipangu, into which, from the appearance of the colors, they were permitted to enter unmolested. Here they found few of the inhabitants besides women. When the king was apprised of what had taken place, he was much afflicted, and immediately gave directions for a strict blockade of the city, which was so effectual that not any person was suffered to enter or to escape from it during six months that the siege continued. At the expiration of this time the Tartars, despairing of success, surrendered upon the condition of their lives being spared. These events took place in the course of the year 1264. The grand Khan having learned, some years after, that the unfortunate issue of the expedition was to be attributed to the dissension between the two commanders, caused the head of one to be cut off, and the other he sent to the savage island of Zorza."

Kæmpfer quotes from the Japanese annals an account of this attempt at conquest by Kublai Khan, thus confirming the general accuracy of Marco Polo. The annals, however, take no notice of the rather extraordinary event mentioned towards the end of the quotation, and simply state that the entire expedition perished; a result attributed to the favor and protection of the gods of Japan. The date, 1264, Mr. Marsden remarks, must be an error of some one of Marco Polo's transcribers, as the true period should be 1280-81.

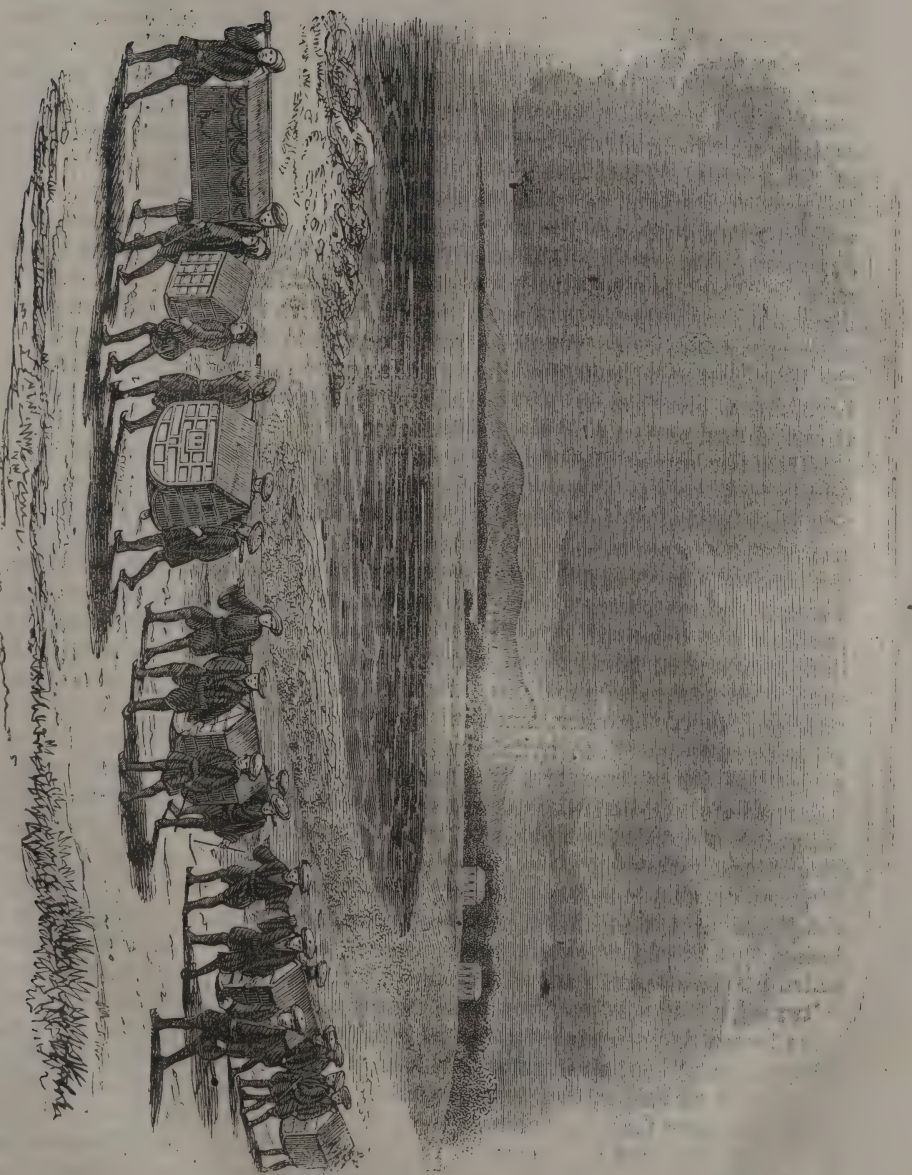
Marco Polo was the guiding star of Columbus; and during the years in which he nursed the visions which led to the discovery of America, the hope of finding the golden island of Zipangu, or Cipango, as well as Cathay, inspired him with persevering zeal. On his first voyage he fancied Cuba was Zipangu; and in the same year, 1492, a German geographer, who had accompanied the Portuguese navigator, Diogo Cam, in his voyage of discovery along the coasts of Guinea, made a terrestrial globe, in which he placed Zipangu at no great distance to the west of the islands of Cape Verd. The progress of discovery dispelled these errors. The Portuguese, during the next half century, in their active career, both of conquest and discovery, explored the eastern seas and countries of Asia; and in 1542 one of their navigators was driven by a storm into a harbor of the principal island of Japan, the Zipangu of Marco Polo. He was treated with great kindness by the natives, for the rigid restriction which now for exactly two centuries has prohibited all access to the country, was then unknown. The Portuguese were not slow in availing themselves of the opportunity of extending their commerce; and in 1549, a young Japanese who had been taken to Goa, and was baptized, induced the Jesuits to send a mission to Japan. Amongst the first who arrived was Xavier, the "apostle of the Indies." The progress of the Jesuits was at first very slow, for they





JAPANESE CITY—SIMONOSEKI.

JAPAN—ANNUAL EMBASSY OF THE DUTCH.





had all the difficulties attendant on the acquisition of language and acquaintance with customs. Kæmpfer says, "The fathers being then as yet unacquainted with the manners, customs, language and policy of the Japanese, were obliged to get their sermons, and what else they had to propose to the people, translated into Japanese by not over skillful interpreters, and the Japanese words expressed in Latin characters; which being done, they read out of their papers what they did not understand themselves, and in a manner, as may easily be imagined, which could not but expose them to the laughter of a less serious and attentive audience." But perseverance conquered these difficulties. They established themselves in the country, and built a college at the great city of Meaco; a rough English captain, who visited Japan in 1612, and who speaks rather contemptuously of the Jesuits, admits that they had accomplished some good. "The Portuguese Jesuits," he says, "have a stately college in this city, very well furnished with men of that society; they breed up abundance of Japanese youth, reading philosophy and divinity to them, making a great many of them preachers, and, I suppose, at last, Jesuits too. There is no doubt but they endeavour to make them as good as they can, and, amongst other arts, teach some of those that are peculiar to their order. They have the New Testament translated into the Japanese tongue; and besides this hopeful set, breeding up in the college, there are reckoned five or six thousand that profess Christianity in Meaco."

While the Jesuits were thus prosecuting their labors, their commercial countrymen were also successfully establishing themselves in Japan. A number of marriages between the Portuguese and the Japanese took place; and as the Portuguese acquired wealth, and thought their footing firm in the country, they became proud and overbearing. This led to ill feeling. Those of the Japanese who were attached to their old customs and religious practices became naturally jealous of the proud foreigners, and of those of their countrymen who adhered to them; and thus two parties were formed; one, by far the most numerous, attached to the old institutions and old state of things; the other, much inferior in numerical strength, but active and numerous enough to irritate into hatred the growing jealousy. Meanwhile, the Dutch, and also the English, were trying to undermine the influence of the Portuguese, and to get a share of the Japanese trade. In Harris's "Collection of Voyages," a Mr. William Adams is termed the first Englishman "that we know of, that visited the great island of Japan." He went as pilot to a Dutch trading fleet, consisting of five sail, which left the Texal in 1598. After enduring much from storm and sickness, and losing sight of their companions, the crew of the vessel in which Mr. Adams sailed reached Japan in a very exhausted state. "But," says the narrator, "'twas their ill luck to meet with Portuguese and Jesuits here. They were forced to make use of them for interpreters indeed, but they had far better been without any, and chose rather to have used the silent language of gestures and signs, than employed such interpreters as they were. For these men gave that character of them that they commonly give of their European neighbors in all parts of the world where they meet them—that they were spies or pirates, and not trading men, as they themselves pretended. And this set the Japanese so against them, that Mr. Adams tells us he was apprehensive at one time that they should have had the fate of pirates in that country, which is, to be set up upon crosses. Now,

when a company of poor seamen came to throw themselves upon their mercy, as it were, in a strange country, where they were not able to speak for themselves, and where their lives and liberties depended entirely upon the people's good opinion of them, to go and serve them at that rate, was an unpardonable piece of villainy, and an action so very inhuman and base, as was only fit for Portuguese and Jesuits to be guilty of."

Mr. Adams, however, escaped the danger of being executed as a pirate; and being sent for by the emperor, resided with him several years. According to his own account, he "had so great a stroke at court that even the Jesuits themselves were willing to make use of his interest there, and courted him to be their patron; and he declares that by his means both Spaniards and Portuguese received several favors from the emperor, which they were otherwise in no likely way of obtaining." Speaking of the trade in Japan, Mr. Adams says that "silks and cloths are very vendible commodities there, and that for ready money. The Japanese have where-withal to be very good paymasters, and can afford to give the best rates for a commodity, having gold and silver enough in their own country. A very happy people, to be both rich and wise, and have these advantages so eminently—money and wit, which do seldom meet together. He tells us the Dutch were admitted to a free trade there, and had very good acceptance with the emperor; and had entered into an agreement with him to send a ship or two well laden thither every year."

The same "Collection of Voyages" contains an account of "the eighth voyage set forth by the East India Company, with three ships under the command of Captain John Saris." Captain Saris attempted to establish an English factory at Japan. On his arrival at Firando, one of the numerous small islands which lie close to the larger islands composing Japan, and where the Dutch had a trading station, he was very kindly received. The natives, says the Captain, "were very highly pleased with the entertainment we gave them; and our English music made no small part of their diversion and pleasure a-shipboard; they made no scruple of promising all the encouragement and kindness they could afford us, especially upon the presenting of our king's letters, which they received with a wonderful joy and satisfaction. This letter the governor would not pretend to open, till he had sent for *Auge*, as he called him, to interpret it to him. This *auge* signifies in their language, a pilot; and the person intended by it was no other than Mr. Adams, our countryman and friend, and at this time a man of no little note and significance in Japan. A dispatch was sent away immediately for him, as likewise to the great emperor up in the country, to give him notice of our arrival and business." An order came for Captain Saris to visit the Japanese emperor; and in obeying it he had an opportunity of seeing a large portion of the country, visiting the chief cities, Meaco, and Yeddo, which he calls Eddo. He procured a license for the English to trade in Japan, a copy of which is given in the account. It commences, "we give free license to the subjects of the king of Great Britain, viz., Sir Thomas Smith, governor and company of the East India merchants and adventurers, forever safely to come into any of the ports of our empire of Japan, with their ships and merchandises, without any hindrance to them or their goods. And to abide, buy, sell, and barter, according to their manner, with all nations; to tarry here as long as they think good, and to depart at their pleasures," &c., &c.



The Dutch, who had previously established themselves at Firando, were jealous of the English; and the Portuguese were jealous of both. There are several letters given from a Mr. Cocks, who was left by Captain Saris in charge of the English Station at Firando; in one of them, dated in 1619, the following odd story is told: Mr. Cocks, "having gone to do his duty to the emperor, on the coming in of the English ships, found in the presence a certain boasting Dutchman, that told the emperor strange stories of his own country, and extolled his king of Holland to the skies, as the greatest and most potent prince in all that part of the world, together with a vast deal of such stuff as that. But he, who understood the Japan language, though the Dutchman thought he did not, told him before the emperor, that he need not have told his majesty such a lie as that, since all the world knew that they had no king in Holland, but only a stadtholder, who did not so much govern the people as the people governed him. And whereas he had the impudence to say that his king, as he called him, held all other princes of Christendom in subjection; 'twas well known that the king of England had been his country's protector, or they had never been in a condition to come and make a noise abroad in the world. The Dutchman was pretty much confounded to lose his king all of a sudden; but there was no help for that; and the Spanish and Portuguese that were there at the time well knew the truth of what was said. The company were extremely diverted, and there was old laughter amongst the Europeans to see the Dutchman so bewildered to find out his king, which they very well knew he never could do."

Meanwhile, the hatred and jealousy between the Portuguese and the natives professing Christianity, and the great body who adhered to the old superstitions, had been growing stronger every day. So early as 1590, it had broken out into an open feud, and many lives were lost. Events also occurred which placed them in the situation of parties politically opposed to each other. The supreme authority in Japan had been usurped; and the usurper, doubtless to consolidate his authority, patronized the stronger party, and discouraged the weaker. Still, though restrictions were laid upon the exertions of the Jesuits, they were not altogether proscribed, until the rash indiscretion of some Franciscans brought down the vengeance of the court. These friars (whose conduct Charlevoix, himself a Jesuit, repeatedly and severely censures) arrived from Manilla, and in spite of the pressing solicitations of the Jesuits, and in defiance of imperial authority, set about building a church, and publicly preaching in the streets of Meaco. For this they urged the very proper plea that we "ought to obey God rather than men." But in their zeal they forget another great guiding rule laid down for missionaries, to "be wise as serpents and harmless as doves," for they excited the Japanese to destroy their idols, and even went the length of attempting to set fire to a temple. From this period the power and influence of the Portuguese and Jesuits declined rapidly, and the native Christians were exposed to all manner of insults from their countrymen. Mr. Cocks, the English resident at Firando, writing in 1614, speaks of "a civil war being ready to commence that threatens very great calamities to the whole country," and in 1619 mentions the dreadful sufferings to which the Christians were exposed. The Portuguese affirmed that the Dutch, in their zeal to supplant them, replied to the question, if they were Christians,—no, that they were Dutchmen. Kämpfer denies

this, and says that the reply was, that they were Christians, but of a different sect from the Portuguese priests. Mr. Cocks, in describing the persecution to which the Japanese Christians were subjected, states that "they made their very children martyrs with them, and carried them in their arms to the stake, choosing rather to resign them to the flames, than leave them to be educated in the Pagan religion." Under one of the plates in Charlevoix's book on Japan is this inscription—"Father Spinola, attached to a stake, giving his benediction to a child of *four* years, who is going to be beheaded."

The Dutch found on board a Portuguese vessel letters addressed by a Japanese of rank to the king of Portugal. They were forwarded to the governor of Firando, and by him to the emperor of Japan. These letters were said to contain proofs of an extensive plot amongst the Portuguese and Japanese Christians against the emperor. The reputed writer of them was condemned and executed; and immediately afterwards, in 1637, appeared the decree which, from that day to this, has shut up Japan from all foreign access. It was ordained that "the whole race of the Portuguese, their mothers and nurses, and whatever belongs to them, shall be banished to Macao," the Portuguese settlement in China; native Christians were ordered to be arrested and committed to prison, and rewards were to be paid for the discovery of priests and Christians; the Japanese were forbidden to leave their own country, and foreigners were prohibited from entering Japan, under the severest penalties.

Several thousands of the Japanese Christians rose in arms, and, taking possession of an old fortification in the neighborhood of a place called Simabarra, determined to defend themselves to the last extremity. The emperor called upon the Dutch, as a proof of their sincerity as allies, to aid him in reducing the insurgents. Feeling their own influence to be tottering, they complied, and sent a ship of war to batter the place. It was taken; and it is affirmed that 40,000 Japanese perished in this insurrection. In the same year, 1638, the buildings on the little island of Firando were demolished, and the Dutch removed to an island in the harbor of Nagasaki, the only port that from that time has been open to foreigners. An attempt was made by the Portuguese, in 1640, to recover their lost footing; they sent an embassy from Macao, which consisted in all of 73 persons. The emperor of Japan paid little respect to the rights and privileges of ambassadors. The Portuguese were arrested, and all executed, with the exception of twelve men, who were turned adrift in a small vessel, with a haughty message from the emperor, that if the king of Portugal dared to set foot in the empire of Japan, he would receive the same treatment. These twelve men were never afterwards heard of.

Kämpfer compares the appearance and position of the Japanese islands to those of the British islands; and on looking at the map, the comparison seems fair and obvious in several points. The British islands are a group lying off the north-west coast of Europe; the Japanese are a group lying off the north-east coast of Asia. In each group there is one large or chief island, containing the principal cities, and constituting the bulk and main body of the kingdom or empire. In each case these principal islands are long and comparatively narrow, stretching over several degrees of latitude from south to north. The German Ocean, as an enclosed sea, may bear some comparison to the sea of Japan, and the strait of Corea to the strait



of Dover. The population of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is estimated at the present time to be about 26,000,000; that of the empire of Japan is conjectured to be about 25,000,000.

The number of islands composing the empire of Japan is unknown. There are, however, three large islands, which, with the number of islands or islets, compose what is properly the empire. The names of the three islands, which lie close to each other, are Kioussiou, Sitkokf, and Nippon, the largest. These cover about as many degrees of latitude, from south to north, as do the British islands. But at the northern end of Nippon is the island of Yesso, which, though not included in what is properly called the empire, is a dependency of it; it is about as large as Ireland. Beyond Yesso, covering the sea between it and the southern point of the projecting peninsula of Kamschatka, are the Kurile islands, on some of which the Japanese have settlements. Taking in Yesso, the Japanese islands extend from the 31st to the 45th degree of north latitude, and are roughly calculated as containing about 160,000 square miles, or about 40,000 more than the British islands.

The sea around the islands of Japan is dangerous, from sudden storms and the extreme shallowness of the shores. This physical circumstance assists the Japanese authorities in maintaining their non-intercourse system. Large European vessels cannot lie near to the land; and for the same reason the Japanese vessels or junks are of small draught of water. The climate of the southern portion of the country has been compared to that of England. "Japan," says Kæmpfer, "boasts of a happy and healthy climate. The air is very inconstant, and subject to frequent changes; in the winter it snows and there are occasionally sharp frosts; the summer, on the contrary, particularly during the dog-days, is intolerably hot. It rains frequently throughout the whole year, but with the greatest profusion in the months of June and July." Waterspouts are occasionally formed in the adjoining seas—"the Japanese fancy they are a kind of water-dragons flying up into the air." Japan is also liable to earthquakes, which have occasionally done great damage; they "happen so frequently that the natives dread them no more than we Europeans do an ordinary storm of thunder and lightning. They are of opinion that the cause of earthquakes is a huge whale creeping under ground, *and that they signify nothing.*"

The interior of the islands is yet too slightly known to be described with any minuteness or accuracy. Even the coasts are far from being laid down with distinctness. The general aspect of the islands may be described as varying from the hilly to the mountainous. This is more especially the case with the large island of Nippon; the rapidity with which its rivers run down to the sea is stated as a proof of its being generally elevated in the centre. Volcanoes, both active and extinct, occur on the large and small islands: in the large dependent island of Yesso there is a bay called Volcano Bay, having a volcano on each side of the bay.

From the populousness of the empire of Japan, all the large islands abound with towns and villages. The capital of the empire is Yeddo, sometimes called Jedo, Iedo, and Eddo, though Yeddo seems to be the generally received orthography. It lies on the east side of the island of Nippon, on the gulf of Yeddo. Captain Saris, from whose account we have already quoted, saw it in 1612, and describes it as "glorious in its appearance, the very tiles of the houses being gilded, and the posts of the doors set

off with a shining varnish. They have no glass windows, but all of board, which open in leaves, and are very delicately painted. There's a causeway runs clever through the chief street of the city, which street is as broad as any in England, and a fine river passes along by or rather underneath the causeway. At every fifty paces there's a well-head substantially fitted up of freestone, and served with buckets for the people to fetch water with in case of fire." Being the residence of the emperor and the court, it is a very populous city, being supposed to contain from a million to a million and a half of inhabitants. On this subject the Japanese indulge in great exaggeration. "They showed us," says Captain Gollownin, "a plan of the capital, and told us that a man could not walk, in one day, from one end of it to the other. When we questioned the Japanese respecting its population, they affirmed that it contained upwards of ten millions of inhabitants, and were very angry when we doubted it. They brought us, the next day, a paper from one of their officers who had been employed in the police in Yeddo. It was stated in this paper that the city of Yeddo has in its principal streets 280,000 houses, and in each of them there lived from 30 to 40 people." The city is subject to frequent fires. In 1703, one of the earthquakes that commonly occur in Japan nearly destroyed it, when many thousand persons perished. The emperor's palace occupies a large enclosed space in the centre of the city.

The next city is Meaco, the residence of the Daïri, or spiritual emperor. It is an inland city, and is supposed to contain about half a million of inhabitants. "Some Europeans," says Gollownin, "call the residence of the spiritual emperor Miako or Meaco. The word means metropolis, and is given by the Japanese to this city as a distinction. Its proper name is Kio, and Kioto the name of the province." "We took Meaco in our way," says Captain Saris; "this is one of the greatest cities in Japan, and a place of mighty trade. All the tradesmen dwell in a part of the city by themselves; the Japanese think it very unseemly and irregular to have men of so many several professions and businesses mixed together, as they are in other places; they are for making all of the same trade neighbors to one another. The most magnificent temple of the whole country is here at Meaco, built of freestone, and as long as St. Paul's in London, (he means *old* St. Paul's), arched, adorned with mighty pillars, and as lofty as that." Xavier, in 1553, says that he was informed that Meaco, previous to some devastation which it had suffered, actually contained 180,000 houses. Kämpfer states that it contained 6000 temples, and that he took a whole day riding through, from one end to the other, though not exactly in a straight line.

There are three other towns which rank with Yeddo and Meaco as imperial towns, forming the five imperial towns of Japan. These are Osaka and Sakay, on the coast, at no great distance from Meaco; and Nagasaki, on the island of Kiouisiou. The Dutch factory was removed to Nagasaki in 1638, from the island of Firando. It is placed on a little island in the harbor called Desima, united to the mainland by a bridge. The word *Sima* means an island or peninsular piece of land, and occurs frequently in Japanese names of places, as the reader may remark by glancing over a map. Desima is said to mean the island in advance or in front, as lying before the town of Nagasaki.

The English factory founded by Captain Saris at Firando had been



broken up about the year 1623, about fifteen years before the removal of the Dutch to Nagasaki. An attempt was made in 1674 to revive the English commercial intercourse. On the arrival of the English vessel in the port of Nagasaki, it was boarded by the Japanese authorities, and the Captain told them that he came with license from the king of England, for the East India Company to trade and have commerce with them, as had been done several years before, but not these forty-nine years past, and presented them with a copy of the license granted in 1612 to Captain Saris by the emperor of Japan. The Japanese governor and his assistants perused it with much attention, and then asked for the original with the emperor's seal attached to it. The English Captain replied, that when the establishment was broken up, the original treaty was returned to the imperial council. The Japanese then inquired if England was at peace with Spain and Portugal, and also what was the religion of the English, with other questions. They went away, and coming back again, said that if the English would be content to trade as the Dutch did, they should be permitted to do so; but then, according to the Japanese custom and manner, it was necessary that the guns, ammunition, and boats should be delivered into their hands, to be carried ashore for safe custody. Boats were placed round the ship, filled with soldiers. After many delays and repeated examinations of the captain and his crew, an order at last came from the emperor, requiring the English ship to be gone; their arms were returned to them in the harbor, and forty Japanese boats having towed the vessel out, the ammunition was then delivered, but with strict charges not to fire off any guns on the coast.

Several other attempts to open a communication with Japan were made at different times, but were baffled much in the same way. Indeed the inducements to attempt establishing a trade became less from year to year, so that about the middle of the 18th century the Dutch were entertaining the idea of withdrawing, on account of the insignificance of the trade, and breaking up their factory at Nagasaki. In the present century, "The war with England," says Captain Golownin, "having prevented the Dutch from trading direct to Japan, they freighted ships in the United States of America with valuable cargoes for Japan. These ships entered Nagasaki under the Dutch flag. The cargoes were delivered before the Japanese began to take particular notice that both these ships and their crews differed very much in appearance from the vessels and seamen they had been accustomed to see. But suspicion was in particular excited by the superior quality of the goods, which were, in fact, all English; the governor, on discovering this, immediately ordered the ships to be reloaded and dismissed the harbor.

The attempts of the Russians to open an intercourse were also resisted. Krusenstern, who conducted an embassy to Nagasaki in 1805, was compelled to submit to the closest inspection, and to deliver up his powder and arms. The Russians were not permitted to go in their boats even a short distance from the ship, except to a barren spot on a small island, where they were hedged in with bamboos so as to be precluded from the sight of anything but the heavens, as the Japanese forgot to put a roof on. An official document delivered to Captain Golownin, warned the Russians that they would be "driven back by cannon balls," if they attempted to open an intercourse. "Our countrymen," say the pertinacious authorities, "wish

to carry on no commerce with foreign lands; for we know no want of necessary things. Though foreigners are permitted to trade at Nagasaki, even to that harbor only those are admitted with whom we have for a long time maintained relations, and we do not trade with them for the sake of gain, but for other important objects. From the repeated solicitations which you have hitherto made to us, you evidently imagine that the customs of our country resemble those of your own: but you are very wrong in thinking so. In future, it will be better to say no more about a commercial connection."

Nagasaki is supposed to contain about 70,000 inhabitants. The harbor is strictly watched and guarded; it is long and narrow, the water gradually and rapidly diminishing in depth, from 40 fathoms, outside the port, to 4 fathoms, off the Dutch factory.

The wood-cut will give an idea of a Japanese seaport town. It represents Simonoseki, a small seaport on the south-western extremity of the island of Nippon, on the strait which divides at this part Nippon from Kiousiou. It lies in the route taken by the Dutch embassy in going from Nagasaki to Yeddo. From Nagasaki this route crosses the island of Kiousiou to Kokura; then passing from that town it crosses the strait of Simonoseki, on the island of Nippon; from Simonoseki it travels to the great trading city of Osaka, and from thence to Yeddo. Simonoseki lies at the foot of a range of hills, which here come close to the sea; by looking at the wood-cut, the reader will remark that the houses are generally of one story, which is the general characteristic of Japanese houses; they are mostly built of wood. The towns thus occupy a large extent of surface. The streets are extremely narrow, and the houses except those of the rich, stand close to each other. This causes a fire, when it breaks out, to be very destructive. One chief remedy in the case of a fire consists in pulling down the houses adjoining, which is comparatively easy, as they are made up of beams and thin boards.

After the authority of the Koubo Sama, or secular emperor, was established, it became a custom for the nobility of various grades in Japan to present themselves once a year at the court in Yeddo. To this custom the Dutch were required to conform; and hence originated the annual embassies made from the factory at Nagasaki to the emperor; and it is to this circumstance, as has already been mentioned, that we owe a considerable portion of our knowledge of the interior of Japan, and of the habits and character of the people. Great ceremony is observed in conducting the embassy to Yeddo. The ambassador is the head of the Dutch factory; he is accompanied by the physician of the factory and secretaries, and attended by a numerous retinue of Japanese, appointed ostensibly as a guard of honor, but in reality to watch the embassy, and to prevent it having much communication with the inhabitants generally. The route from Nagasaki to Yeddo has been already described. In Kæmpfer's time it occupied a period of about three months to go and return, including the stay at the capital.

Along the great roads are numerous inns and post-houses. The post-houses are placed at regular distances, and at each there is a postmaster, whose duty it is to keep registers of all travelers, to attend to the carriage of letters, government edicts, &c. The inns consist of two stories, the lowest one serving as a storehouse. Each inn has a garden attached to it.



Both sexes carry fans when they go out or travel; and the ingenuity of the Japanese is exhibited in the fact, that on what may be termed traveling fans there is to be found, painted or written, the different traveling routes, lists of inns, and other useful information; besides which, little road-books are sold by boys and others on the highways.

We shall confine this article to an abridgment chiefly of Kämpfer's account of the annual embassy, as it was performed in his time.

All princes and lords being obliged to make their appearance once a year, this was done by the Dutch about the middle of February. Having sent their presents on before, they sail for Simonoseki. Their goods are all marked with the possessor's name and what they contain. Their train on an average (varying from the escorts they pick up and drop on their visits as they proceed) may be 100. Each day's journey is long and fatiguing from morning (saving an hour for dinner) till evening, making ten to thirteen Japanese miles a day. They have the same honor paid them as traveling native princes. The entertainment on the road is as good as could be desired; yet the narrow compass of liberty is a cause of complaint. The attendants leave you on no occasion; at your inn you cannot go beyond the *garden*; on the road, if you dismount, the cavalcade instantly stops. The Bugjo, or commander-in-chief, studies night and day the nature of his instructions and the journals of his predecessors, following *step by step* their actions and behavior. It is looked upon as a proof of his faithfulness to *exceed* them. Nay, some of them insist, in spite of accident, on reaching the same inns at the stated times. The landlord treats them as they would princes of the empire. He comes ceremoniously out of the town or village, addressing all of them, bowing and complimenting them, then hastens to his house and a second time receives them. When in their apartments the landlord and his chief domestics attend, each with a dish of tea, which they present with a low bow, repeating in a deep-fetched voice, *Ah, ah, ah*, an expression of submission or inferiority. What else they want their own servants fetch. Civility in every shape is shown more than could be expected from the most polished nation. The behavior of the Japanese, from the meanest countryman to the greatest lord, is such that the whole empire might be called a school of civility and good manners. They have so much sense and innate curiosity, that if they were not absolutely denied free and open conversation and correspondence with foreigners, they would receive them with the utmost kindness and pleasure.

The following extract from the journal of Kämpfer shows how populous was the country through which they passed:—

\* "February 10, 1691.—Mr. Von Butenheim, the Dutch ambassador to the emperor's court, took leave of the two governors of Nagasaki; packed baggage: on the 14th we left our island attended by the two governors and their whole court. It is a journey of about 200 German miles from Nagasaki to Yeddo. Pass thirty-three large cities with castles, seventy-five small towns, and innumerable villages and hamlets. Our train consisted of a *Doser*, his deputy, a bailiff, then our interpreter, Dr. Kämpfer, and his assistant, all on horseback. Last of all came the *Soriki*, or Bugjo, as chief of the train. The cooks, servants, and kitchen furniture were sent before, as also clerks to note expenses, provide horses, take memorandums, &c."

On their arrival at the commercial city of Osaka, one of the chief seaports in Japan, they had an interview with the governor, whose conversa-

tion turned chiefly on the following points—that the weather was very cold—that we had made a very great journey—that it was a singular favor to be admitted to the emperor's presence—that of all nations the Dutch alone were allowed the honor. He then asked “whether we were not extremely delighted with the sight of their country after so long and fatiguing a journey?”

They reached Yeddo after a journey of twenty-nine days from Nagasaki. Here a house was assigned to them, and all care taken of them, but they were strictly guarded, and not suffered to leave their quarters. Their time was occupied in arranging their presents, and preparing themselves for the expected audience, for which, however, they had to wait several days.

The palace, or residence of the emperor, occupies a large space nearly in the centre of the city of Yeddo. The palace is more a collection of houses than one house. The houses of the Japanese are generally of one story, and the emperor's palace is not an exception. The mansions of the rich, which are numerous in Yeddo, are not deficient in neatness or convenience. Most of them are built of wood. The walls of the apartments are hung with mats fringed and embroidered and ornamented with paintings.

On the day appointed for the first audience of the Dutch embassy the whole party was conducted with much ceremony through the exterior gates and courts of the palace to the hall of audience, called the Hall of the Hundred Mats. Here the emperor was seated cross-legged to receive them.

“Our resident,” says Kämpfer, “was received into the emperor's presence, when they all cried out *Hollande Captain*, which was the signal for him to draw near and make his obeisances. Accordingly he crawled on his hands and knees to a place shown him between the presents duly ranged on one side and the place where the emperor sat on the other, and then kneeling, he bowed his forehead quite to the ground, and so crawled backwards like a crab without uttering one single word. So mean and short a thing is the audience we have of this mighty monarch. Nor is there any difference to the greatest prince of the empire.

“Our second audience. We were conducted through lines of life-guardsmen and shown to the imperial apartments by some great officers of the crown. *Benjo*, a chief minister, bade us welcome in the emperor's name. The mutual compliments being over, we were asked a thousand ridiculous and impertinent questions. They desired to know how old each was—his name, which we were commanded to write on a bit of paper—what distemper I thought most dangerous—how I proceeded to cure cancerous humors and imposthumations of the inner parts—the distance from Holland to Batavia—from Batavia to Nagasaki—whether European physicians did not search after medicine to render people immortal, &c., &c. The emperor, who had hitherto sat among the ladies, now drew near to us; he ordered us to take off our cloaks of ceremony, then to stand up that he might have a full view of us; again to walk—to stand still—to compliment each other—to dance—to jump—to play the drunkard—to speak broken Japanese—to read Dutch—to paint—to sing—to put our cloaks on and off. Meanwhile we obeyed the emperor's commands, and I joined to my dance a love song in High German. In this manner, with innumerable such other apish tricks, we must suffer ourselves to contribute to the emperor's and the court's diversion. The ambassador is free from this and the like commands, for as he represents the authority of his masters, much



care is taken that nothing should be done to injure or prejudice the same. Besides that, he showed so much gravity in his countenance and behavior as was sufficient to convince the Japanese that he was not at all a fit person to have such ridiculous and comical commands put upon him. Having been thus examined for two hours, though with great apparent civility, some servants then came in, and put before us a small table with Japanese victuals. We ate some little things. We were then ordered to put on our cloaks and take our leave; and without delay complied with, putting thereby an end to this second audience."

"The rich Japanese," says Captain Golownin, "make a great show with their equipages. The princes and most distinguished people have carriages which resemble our old fashioned ones, and were introduced into Japan by the Dutch. They are sometimes drawn by horses, but for the most part by oxen. But they are more commonly carried in chairs, like the sedan chairs in Europe. They also ride on horseback, but consider it as vulgar to hold the bridle themselves; the horse must be led."

The different villages are obliged to maintain the roads in their vicinity. There are post-houses along the lines of roads for supplying post-horses, bearers, traveling servants, &c. These post-houses are distinct from the inns. Thunberg, in traveling between Osaka and Meaco, compares the appearance of the country to that of Holland for neatness and regularity. The whole space on both sides, as far as he could see, was nothing but a fertile field; and he passed through a continual succession of villages, built along the sides of the roads. The only wheel-carriages seen by Thunberg were on the road between Osaka and Meaco; the one town standing in somewhat of the same relation to the other as Liverpool does to Manchester. For though Meaco is distinguished as the residence of the spiritual emperor, it is also a chief manufacturing town, and Osaka is one of the greatest seaports in Japan, and so gay a town withal, that the Japanese have a name for it signifying "the theatre of pleasure."

The commercial intercourse of the Japanese is entirely internal, with the exception of the guarded commerce with the Dutch and the Chinese. The intercourse amongst themselves is kept up by coasting-vessels, and by the roads. There is a custom-house in each port, which has the superintendence of the loading and unloading of goods, levies the duty, &c. They have also officers having functions analogous to our harbor-masters; and for the advantage of the merchants the government publishes a kind of commercial gazette, which contains an account of the prices of goods in different parts of the empire. The state of the crops is also watched, and particulars communicated from time to time. Owing to the variety in the climate and productions of Japan there is considerable inducement to keep up the internal traffic. Thus the northern part of Nippon abounds with wood, but is deficient in rice, which is grown abundantly in the southern parts. Wood being very valuable to the Japanese for building and other purposes, there is in these commodities alone a staple of commerce. The cultivation of cotton, the manufacture of salt, extensive fisheries along the coasts, the growth of tea and tobacco, which are used to an extent as to be necessities of existence, the production and manufacture of silk, the working and manufacture of copper into kettles, fire-irons, and kitchen utensils, steel manufactures, such as the making of swords, daggers, and metallic mirrors, manufacture of porcelain, in which they excel the Chinese, the cultivation of

vegetable productions, which constitute a favorite article of diet, next to rice and fish, &c., all supply, the industrious Japanese with active employment.

The origin of the Japanese is uncertain ; from the cast of their features they are supposed to belong to the Mongul race. It seems probable that the civilization of the country was derived from China. The Japanese traditions carry up their origin to demi-gods. "Though traditions of this sort," said an intelligent Japanese to Captain Golownin, "are ridiculous and incredible, yet we must not disturb the belief of the people in them, as this may be useful to the state. They cause the people to prefer themselves to all other nations, to despise foreign manners, and, in general, everything that is foreign ; and the Japanese have learned by dear-bought experience that it has always been attended with misfortune to them when they adopted anything foreign, or suffered foreigners to interfere in their concerns. Besides, the same prejudice that teaches a people to love their country binds them to their native soil, and hinders them from exchanging it for a foreign land."

This quotation gives the *rationale* of the continued existence of the Daïri, or spiritual emperor, in Japan, long after he has lost all actual power. The Daïri, as an hereditary monarch, is supposed to be descended from the Kami, or demi-gods, who, in obedience to the will of heaven, peopled Japan. The tendency of the Oriental mind to combine spiritual and temporal power in one individual is well known ; Druidism has been conjectured by Sir James Macintosh to be of eastern origin. But in an early state of society, when the principles of government are scarcely, if at all, understood, it seems a very natural result that temporal power should be submitted to, because enforced by sanctions which claim a spiritual or divine origin.

The Daïri of Japan was the supreme monarch, but exercised a large portion of his authority through a deputy, whose official name was Koubo, and who was commander-in-chief, with other high functions. There is a title of honor amongst the Japanese—Sama—to which our word *lord* is perhaps an equivalent. It is applied to various ranks, up to the highest. An ambitious Koubo Sama set an example of aspiring to be the master, not the highest servant, of the Daïri. The struggles which arose out of this, and also from one Koubo Sama attempting to supplant another, kept Japan long in an unquiet state, until about the beginning of the seventeenth century, when one, more successful or abler than the rest, succeeded in establishing his authority. This was the Koubo Sama who granted to Captain Saris a license to the English to trade in Japan. But his authority was not established without a fearful sacrifice of life ; and partly out of the jealousy of the usurper arose the expulsion of the Portuguese, the extinction of Christianity, and the shutting up of Japan. Captain Saris mentions the terrible evidences of an unquiet and scarcely settled state, and also the vengeance of a conqueror, in the crosses and gibbets with the mangled bodies of executed persons, which met his eye in profusion, especially near to the capital. But though the Daïri was deprived of all actual power, the cunning or dextrous Koubo Samas have carefully preserved his hereditary existence, still affecting to pay him the greatest respect, and to obey him. Any law issued must have the signature of the Daïri. He is maintained at Meaco in great state as a sacred person ; the hereditary succession is carefully provided for ; and at stated periods, having long intervals between



them, the Koubo Sama comes with much pomp to visit the Daïri, and to pay his affected homage.

The supreme authority in Japan may be considered as divided between the emperor and a few of the higher branches of the princes. The emperor, though considered as absolutely supreme, is in fact not so, his council possessing very great influence in affairs of state. The whole structure of authority in Japan may be considered as resting on a basis of hereditary descent. Society is divided into different classes—the reigning princes, the nobility, priests, soldiers, merchants, mechanics, peasants, and slaves. The military profession is held in honor; and the common people give the soldiers the title of *sama* (lord, or sir, according to rank) in addressing them. Obedience to authority is much insisted on; and from the prevalence of the doctrines of Confucius, the government may be considered as strengthened by the force of opinion. But the severity with which the law is put in force against offenders, real or supposed, makes obedience as much a result of fear as of opinion. The families of the princes who are sent to govern districts, are obliged to reside at Yeddo; and being in the hands of the emperor, give to his authority a strong influencing power.

The extraordinary faith (or principles) of Buddhism was introduced into Japan from China about the middle of the sixth century. The original or primitive religion of Japan still exists, though much disfigured. “The adherents of this religion,” says Golownin, “believe that they have a preference before the others, because they adore the ancient peculiar divinities called Kami, that is, the immortal spirits, or children of the highest Being, who are very numerous. They also adore and pray to saints who have distinguished themselves by a life agreeable to heaven, uncommon piety, and zeal for religion. They build temples to them. The spiritual emperor is the head and high-priest of this religion.” The opinions of Confucius and of the Brahmins, mixed up with many mean and debasing superstitions, are to be found in Japan. But many of the educated Japanese are materialists.

The account of the captivity of Captain Golownin is calculated to make us think, on the whole, very highly of the national character of the Japanese, especially when all circumstances are considered. He was captured by treachery, and the bay in which he and his companions were taken prisoners was named by the Russians, Deceit Bay. But in consequence of outrages which had been previously committed at some of the Japanese settlements on the Kurile Islands, the Japanese were very jealous and fearful of the Russians. Besides, it is at the peril of the lives of the authorities, even in the distant settlements of Japan, to open any communication with foreigners. Captain Golownin was the commander of a Russian vessel; he repeatedly tried to open a communication with the authorities, and in Deceit Bay on Kounashir, the nearest Kurile island to Yesso, he was, after many manœuvres, invited to a conference. Having gone with two officers and a few men, he was, after being hospitably entertained, suddenly overpowered, while his vessel was fired upon and compelled to leave the coast. At first the prisoners were very roughly used, carried over to the large island of Yesso, and kept confined in the city of Khakodade, and then in the populous city of Matsmaï, both on the sea-shore of the strait of Sangar, which divides Yesso from the northern end of Nippon. But though Yesso is only a dependency of Japan, governed by noblemen who come from

Yeddo for stated periods, and whose families are kept in the capital as a security for their behavior, as soon as the Russian prisoners came in contact with the regular authorities they were treated with great consideration. Even an ill-judged attempt of Captain Golownin and some of his companions to effect their escape, during which they were absent several days, suffering great hardships and vainly trying to seize a boat, was not made matter of very serious complaint. Had they escaped, the disgrace of the governor of Yesso would probably have followed, as he allowed them considerable indulgences; yet on their recapture, their motives in attempting to escape were appreciated, and after a mild rebuke, they were confined with some rigor for a little time, and then allowed their former indulgences. After being kept about two years and three months, they were, not without tedious negotiation, given up to the Russians; but their Japanese companions, from the governor downwards, parted from them with expressions of congratulation at their obtaining their liberty, and regret at parting with them.

Such is a very brief view of the interesting empire of Japan. It has long contained within it much of what we call civilization. There is a supreme authority, law administered, a strict police maintained, highways, with accommodations for traveling, and a regular post; arts and manufactures carried on; schools for the instruction of youth; reading and writing is a very common accomplishment; they are no mean proficient in much that may be called science; they have amusements, such as the drama; are fond of gardens; and in spite of all the vices of their exclusive system of government, calculated to foster admiration of themselves and contempt for others, there is, on the whole, a very kindly and liberal spirit amongst the people. They are insatiably curious, teasing an unfortunate stranger with a pertinacity more determined than that of a New England man, as to his birth-place, parentage, country, customs, &c., &c. Their morals are not the strictest; but they are a superior race to the maritime Chinese, having more pride and not so much duplicity, especially of the mean and tricky kind. The bulk of the people would not be averse to intercourse with foreigners, if the law were not maintained so strictly; and perhaps a time is not far distant when we may get freer access to Japan.

Actuated by this hope, the Government of the United States, in the course of the year 1852, directed its attention to the accomplishment of this object. Our settlements on the shores of the Pacific have already given a great extension, and in some respects a new direction, to our commerce in that ocean. A direct and rapidly increasing intercourse has sprung up with Eastern Asia. The waters of the Northern Pacific, even into the Arctic sea, have of late years been frequented by our whalers. The application of steam to the general purposes of navigation is becoming daily more common, and makes it desirable to obtain fuel and other necessary supplies at convenient points on the route between Asia and our Pacific shores. Our unfortunate countrymen, who from time to time suffer shipwreck on the coasts of the eastern seas, are entitled to protection. Besides these specific objects, the general prosperity of our States on the Pacific requires that an attempt should be made to open the opposite regions of Asia to a mutually beneficial intercourse. It is obvious that this attempt could be made by no power to so great advantage as by the United States, whose constitutional system excludes every idea of distant colonial depend-



encies. The President has accordingly been led to order an appropriate naval force to Japan, under the command of a discreet and intelligent officer of the highest rank known to our service. That officer is instructed to endeavor to obtain from the government of that country some relaxation of the inhospitable and anti-social system which it has pursued for about two centuries. He has been directed particularly to remonstrate in the strongest language against the cruel treatment to which our shipwrecked mariners have often been subjected, and to insist that they shall be treated with humanity. He is instructed, however, at the same time, to give that Government the amplest assurances that the objects of the United States are such and such only as above indicated, and that the expedition is friendly and peaceful. Notwithstanding the jealousy with which the governments of Eastern Asia regard all overtures from foreigners, the President is not without hopes of a beneficial result of the expedition. Should it be crowned with success, the advantages will not be confined to the United States, but, as in the case of China, will be equally enjoyed by all the other maritime powers. In all the steps preparatory to this expedition, the Government of the United States has been materially aided by the good offices of the King of the Netherlands, the only European power having any commercial relations with Japan.

The long interdict which has denied to strangers access to the ports or territory of that country, and the singularly inhospitable laws which its government has adopted to secure the seclusion, having been productive, of late years, of gross oppression and cruelty to citizens of the United States, it has been thought expedient to take some effective measure to promote a better understanding with this populous and semi-barbarous empire; to make the effort, not only to obtain from them the observance of the rights of humanity to such of our people as may be driven by necessity upon their coasts, but, also, to promote the higher and more valuable end of persuading them to abandon their unprofitable policy of seclusion, and gradually to take a place in that general association of commerce, in which their resources and industry would equally enable them to confer benefits upon others, and the fruits of a higher civilization upon themselves.

The extension of the domain of the United States to the shores of the Pacific, the rapid settlement of California and Oregon, the opening of the highway across the Isthmus of Central America, the great addition to our navigation employed in trade with Asiatic nations, and the increased activity of our whaling ships in the vicinity of the northern coasts of Japan, are now pressing upon the consideration of this Government the absolute necessity of reviewing our relations to those eastern communities which lie contiguous to the path of our trade. The enforcement of a more liberal system of intercourse upon China has met the approval of the civilized world, and its benefits are seen and felt, not less remarkably in the progress of that ancient empire itself, than in the activity which it has already imparted to the pursuit of Eastern commerce. China is awaking from the lethargy of a thousand years, to the perception of the spirit of the present era, and is even now furnishing her quota to the adventure which distinguishes and stimulates the settlement of our western coast.

These events have forced upon the people of America and Europe the consideration of the question, how far it is expedient with the rights of the civilized world to defer to those inconvenient and unsocial customs by which

a nation capable of contributing to the relief of the wants of humanity shall be permitted to renounce that duty; whether any nation may claim to be exempt from the admitted Christian obligation of hospitality to those strangers whom the vocation of commerce or the lawful pursuits of industry, may be incidentally brought in need of its assistance; and the still stronger case, whether the enlightened world will tolerate the infliction of punishment for contumelious treatment upon the unfortunate voyager, whom the casualties of the sea may have compelled to an unwilling infraction of a barbarous law.

These are questions which are every day becoming more significant. That oriental sentiment which, hardened by the usage and habit of centuries, has dictated the inveterate policy of national isolation in Japan, it is very apparent will not long continue to claim the sanctity of a national right, to the detriment of the cause of universal commerce and civilization, at this time so signally active in enlarging the boundaries of human knowledge, and the diffusion of comfort over the earth. The day has come when Europe and America have found an urgent inducement to demand of Asia and Africa the rights of hospitality, of aid and comfort, shelter and succor, to the men who pursue the great high roads of trade and exploration over the globe. Christendom is constrained by the pressure of an increasing necessity to publish its wants and declare its rights to the heathen, and in making its power felt will bring innumerable blessings to every race which shall acknowledge its mastery.

The Government of the United States has happily placed itself in the front of this movement, and it may be regarded as one of the most encouraging guaranties of its success, that the expedition which has just left our shores, takes with it the earnest good wishes, not only of our own country, but of the most enlightened communities of Europe.

The opening of Japan has become a necessity which is recognized in the commercial adventure of all Christian nations, and is deeply felt by every owner of an American whaleship, and every voyager between America and China.

This important duty has been consigned to the commanding officer of the East India squadron, a gentleman in every respect worthy of the trust reposed in him, and who contributes to its administration the highest energy and ability, improved by long and various service in his profession. Looking to the magnitude of the undertaking, and the great expectations which have been raised, both in this country and in Europe, in reference to its results, and the casualties to which it may be exposed, and the necessity to guard it, by every precaution within the power of the Government, against the possibility of a failure, the Secretary of the Navy thought it proper, with the President's approbation, to increase the force destined to this employment, and to put at the disposal of Commodore Perry a squadron of unusual strength and capability, consisting of the line-of-battle ship *Vermont*, the steam-frigates *Mississippi* (the flag-ship of the Commodore), and *Powhattan*, the corvette *Macedonian*, the sloop-of-war *Vandalia*, and the store-ships *Supply* and *Southampton*, which, with the ships on that station—the steamer *Susquehanna*, and the sloops-of-war *Saratoga* and *Plymouth*—will constitute a command adapted, we may suppose, to any emergency which the delicate nature of the trust committed to the Commodore may present. It is probable that the exhibition of the whole force, which will be under the



command of Commodore Perry during the first year, will produce such an impression upon a Government and people who are accustomed to measure their respect by the array of power which accompanies the demand of it, as may enable him, to dispense with the vessels whose term of service is drawing near to a close, and that they may be returned to the United States without any material prolongation of their cruise.

A liberal allowance has been made to the squadron for all the contingencies which the peculiar nature of the enterprise may create. The commanding officer is furnished with ample means of defence and protection, on land as well as sea, with the means also of procuring despatch vessels when necessary, transports for provision and fuel, and such other employments as may be required. Special depots of coal have been established at various points and abundant supplies provided. He has, in addition to the instructions usually given to the squadron on this station, been directed to avail himself of such opportunities as may fall in his way to make as accurate surveys as his means will allow, of the coasts and seas he may visit, and to preserve the results for future publication, for the benefit of commerce.

Intelligence has also reached this country that the Emperor of Russia has started an expedition for Japan, consisting of the frigate *Pallas*, a tender, and a screw-steamer bought in England,—to be under the command of vice-Admiral Poatatine, a very efficient officer and a worthy man. The frigate left Cronstadt in October, 1852, and was to stop at some port in the English Channel, where the Expedition would finally start from. It is said to be for scientific purposes, but it is pretty certain it is sent to watch the American Expedition, of which they are almost ridiculously jealous.

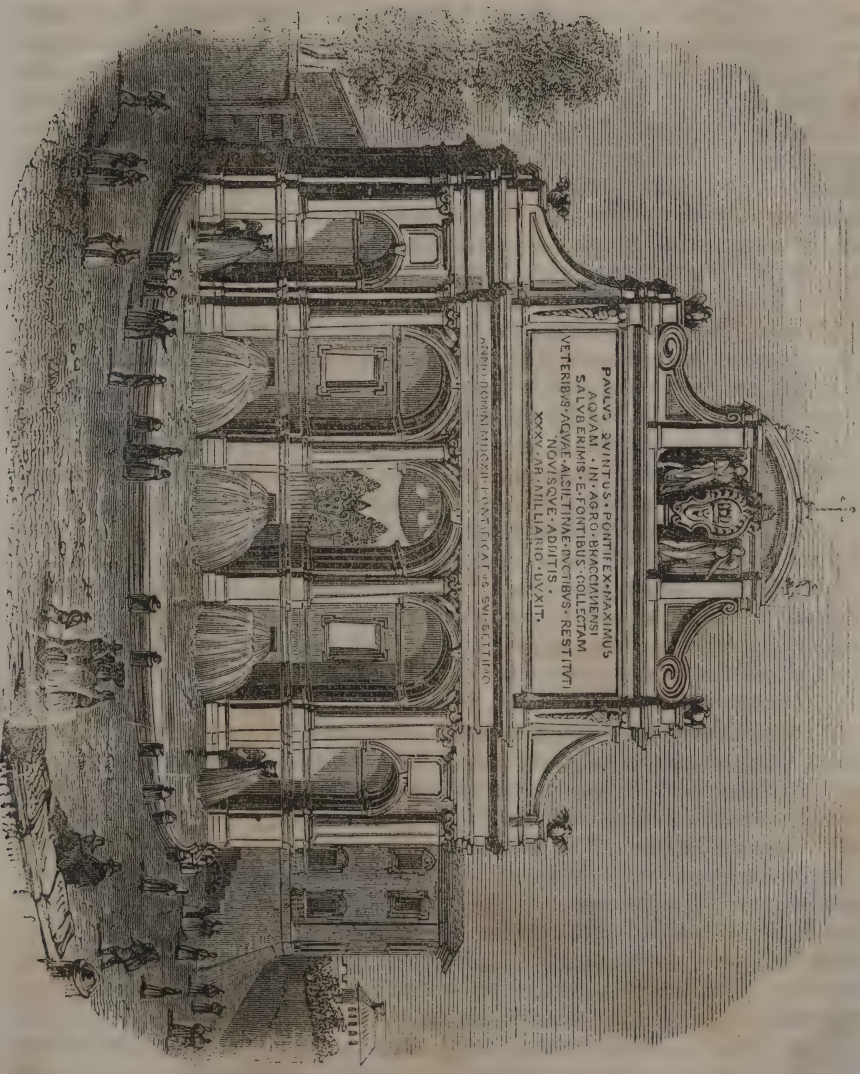
It is understood that the expedition from the United States goes prepared to exhibit to the Japanese all the arts, inventions and improvements of civilized and enlightened life. It carries with it not only specimens of the various machines used in agricultural and manufacturing departments, but wire and implements for erecting and working a line of telegraph, and iron and engine for laying and running a short route of railroad. It is ardently to be hoped that success may attend this expedition, and that this rich and fruitful country may be opened to the commerce of the world, or at least forced to acknowledge and practice the laws of humanity and hospitality.

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## FOUNTAINS AT ROME.

**N**O people ever equaled the Romans in the magnificence of the works which they constructed for the purpose of bringing supplies of water to their various provincial capitals, as well as to Rome itself. Strabo says, that such a quantity of water was introduced into the city, that whole rivers seemed to flow through the streets and down the sewers; so that every house had its pipes and cisterns, sufficient to furnish a copious and abundant supply.

Their aqueducts are incontestible monuments of the greatness of their



ROME—FOUNTAIN OF PAUL V.



designs; and valleys, mountains, and extensive plains offered no impediments which they did not surmount by skill, and the exercise of an indomitable will. The edifice where various aqueducts united was called "castellum," and was generally not only a solid but even magnificent construction. Sometimes they were cased with marble, and ornamented with marble pillars. Pliny states, that Agrippa alone erected 130 of these reservoirs, and opened 105 fountains in connexion with them, which were adorned with 300 brass or marble statues. It is believed that the daily supply of water in ancient Rome amounted to 800,000 tons. The three aqueducts which now remain are those of the *Acqua Vergine*, of the *Acqua Felice*, and of the *Acqua Paulina*. The first discharges itself into the *Fontana di Trevi*; the second into the *Fontana di Termini*; and the third divides itself into two channels, one of which supplies the *Fontana Paolina* represented in the engraving. The quantity of water which is supplied is abundant, the quality extremely salubrious; and the arrangements for an equal distribution of the element are on a scale of convenience as well as magnificence. Every quarter, however poor, is well supplied; and there are few of the fountains which do not possess some claim upon the attention, either from their size, form, or situation. Mr. Eustace remarks, in his "Classical Tour," that "the modern Romans, though inferior in numbers and opulence to their ancestors, have shown equal taste and spirit in this respect, and deserve a just eulogium, not only for having procured an abundance of water, but for the splendid and truly imperial style in which it is poured forth for public use." He proceeds to draw an amusing comparison between these fountains and the water-works that often adorn public walks and palace-gardens. "Artificial fountains," he says, "in general are little better than ornamental pumps, which sometimes squirt out a scanty thread of water, and sometimes distil only a few drops into a muddy basin. Those on a greater scale now and then throw up a column, or pour a torrent, as occasion may require, on certain state days, or for the amusement of some distinguished personage, and then subside till a fresh supply enables them to renew the exhibition. Such are the so much celebrated water-works of St. Cloud, Marli, and Versailles; inventions which can be considered only as playthings, calculated, like a theatrical decoration, to act an occasional part, and to furnish a momentary amusement, but too insignificant to be introduced into the resorts of the public." The three finest fountains of Rome are the *Fontana Felice*, the *Fontana di Trevi*, and the *Fontana Paolina*. The *Fontana di Trevi* is considered to be the finest fountain in the world. It is supplied with a deluge of water; and in the summer evenings the square in which it stands is resorted to on account of the freshness which is diffused through the air. The waters of the *Fontana Felice* are discharged into a vast basin through a rock, under an Ionic arcade, built of white stone, and faced with marble. The *Fontana Paolina*, represented in the cut, was constructed by the architect Fontana, by order of Pope Paul V., with materials taken from the forum of Nerva. Six Ionic columns of red granite, support an entablature containing inscriptions, and supporting the arms of the pontiff. The water rushes in a complete torrent through the principal issues, and in a smaller stream through orifices in the mouths of dragons, which are placed in niches on each side. A fine basin of white marble receives this abundant supply of water, which is of the purest kind. Eustace says:—"The lofty situation of this fountain renders

it a conspicuous object to all the opposite hills. The trees that line its sides and wave to the eye through its arches, shed an unusual beauty around it; and the immense basin which it replenishes gives it the appearance, not of the contrivance of human ingenuity, but almost the creation of enchantment."

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## THE HOT FOUNTAINS OF ICELAND.

**I**N the neighborhood of the volcanic mountains of Iceland, the traveler frequently finds his way stopped by frightful rents in the earth, and deep fissures in the lava. He also treads on ground that sounds hollow beneath his feet; and there he sometimes hears the rushing of water in the concealed chasms over which he is walking, and at other times, where apertures occur in the thin crust of the earth, he sees steam issuing forth from the subterranean conduits and towering in the air.

The volcanic fires which pour forth such tremendous eruptions from Mount Hecla, the Yokuls, and other craters, though, generally speaking, they do not exert their more terrific energies except after intervals of years, are yet not extinct, but, burning unseen, extend far from the craters themselves, and convert the waters that flow near them into boiling fluid and highly rarefied vapor, which at certain vents maintain perennial eruptions. Instead of fire, smoke, liquid lava, lapille, and ashes, these vents or aqueous craters discharge columns of steam and spouts of boiling water; and instead of years, in most cases, only a few hours intervene between their efforts.

The most important of these issues are at Haukadal, considerably in the rear of Hecla, whose three snow-clad summits towering over a ridge of intervening hills, are, however, visible from the spot. Here, within a very limited space, are some dozens of geysers, the clouds of vapor they are constantly emitting being visible at the distance of several miles. The term geyser, which is the generic name of these hot spouting springs, is derived from the Icelandic verb "geysa,"—"to rage, to burst forth violently." The most important of the fountains at Haukadal is called the "great geyser," and as it seems to be the greatest in Iceland, we shall more particularly describe it.

Whatever may be the activity of the numerous fountains that surround it, the great geyser is always the prominent object in the extraordinary scene. It is surrounded by a large circular mound formed by the earth and matter it has ejected and deposited during the course of ages. Internally this mound is hollow, presenting a basin about one hundred and fifty feet in circumference, which is ordinarily filled to the depth of about four feet with boiling water, beautifully clear and crystalline. In the middle of this basin a pipe or funnel, about ten feet in diameter, but wider at top,





ICELAND—GEYSERS, OR HOT FOUNTAINS.

descends perpendicularly in the earth to the depth of nearly eighty feet. It is this tube that is the vent of the subterranean action of fire and water. The bottom and sides of the basin within the mound are covered with whitish siliceous incrustations, rendered perfectly smooth by the constant action of boiling water. Two small channels open from the sides of the basin and allow almost constant passage to some of the water. This water, still hot and strongly impregnated with mineral matter, on leaving the mound flows through a turfy kind of soil, and by acting on the peat, mosses, and grass, gradually produces some of the most beautiful specimens of petrification. Leaves of the birch, and of the other stunted trees which grow in that inhospitable climate, are also found incrustated, so as to appear as of white stone, yet still preserving not merely their general form but their minutest fibres unaltered.

All the Icelandic travelers agree in representing the eruptions of the great geyser as occurring at irregular intervals. We take our account of an eruption from Dr. E. Henderson, who visited and paid great attention to the fountain in 1814 and 1815. Low reports and slight concussions of the ground give the first signal of coming violence. These symptoms are succeeded by a few jets thrown up by the pipe or funnel in the centre of the basin, and then, after a pause of a greater or less number of minutes, a rumbling noise is heard underground, louder reports succeed, and concussions strong enough to shake the whole mound; in the interior of which the water boils with increased violence, and overflows the edges of the capacious basin. Other reports soon follow, being louder and more rapid than the preceding, and not unlike the discharge of a park of artillery. Then, with an astounding roar and immense velocity, the water rushes through the pipe, and rises into the air in irregular jets, which are surrounded and almost concealed by accompanying volumes of steam. To these first jets loftier and more defined ones succeed, and there is generally a central or main jet presenting a column of boiling water from nine to twelve feet in diameter, and from fifty to seventy feet in height, on an average. Sometimes the main jet exceeds a hundred feet in height, and other geysers are said to throw water, though not in such volume, to a greater elevation. As the jets of the great geyser issue from the central pipe, the water in the basin near to the pipe is raised about a foot and a half, and as the columns descend into the orifice whence they were ejected, the water everywhere overflows. Unlike the eruptions of fire from the crater of a volcano, which often last for days without any apparent diminution or pause, these boiling fountains seldom play longer than six or seven minutes at a time. Then the action of the central pipe ceases; dense steam covers for awhile the basin; and when that moves off, nothing is seen but a sheet of clear, hot water, and all is quiet, until, after an interval of some hours, faint reports announce the approach of a fresh eruption. On Dr. Henderson's second visit to the great geyser, in August, 1815, when he pitched his tent close to it for two days, its eruptions occurred pretty regularly every six hours, and some of the columns of water rose to the height of one hundred and fifty feet.

Situated at about one hundred and fifty yards to the south of the great geyser, and scarcely inferior to it, is the new geyser, whose eruption Dr. Henderson thus describes:—

“From an orifice nine feet in diameter, a column of water, accompanied .



with prodigious volumes of smoke, was erupted with inconceivable force, and a tremendous roaring noise, to varied heights of from fifty to eighty feet, and threatened to darken the horizon, though brightly illumined by the morning sun. \* \* \* When the jets of water subsided, their place was occupied by the spray and steam, which having free room to play, rushed with a deafening roar to a height little inferior to that of the water. On throwing the largest stones we could find into the pipe, they were instantly propelled to an amazing height, and some of them that were cast up more perpendicularly than the others, remained for the space of four or five minutes within the influence of the steam. A gentle northern breeze carried part of the spray at the top of the pillar to one side, when it fell like drizzling rain, and was so cold that we could stand below it and receive it on our hands and face without the least inconvenience. While I kept my station on the same side with the sun, a most brilliant circular bow, of a large size, appeared on the opposite side of the fountain; and, on changing sides, having the fountain between me and the sun, I discovered another, if possible still more beautiful, but so small as only to encircle my head. Their hues entirely resembled those of the common rainbow."

Still nearer to the great geyser, at the distance of only eighty yards from it, there was formerly another fountain, called the roaring geyser, from the continual noise it made. Its jets rivaled in height those of the great geyser, but in consequence of an earthquake, in 1789, its volume of water was greatly diminished, and in the course of a few years this fountain entirely ceased. At the same time, however, another geyser which had been insignificant before, began to throw up water and steam to a great height.

Earthquakes, by intercepting the subterranean currents of waters, or by opening new channels and giving other directions to those waters, by disrupting the crust of the earth here, or by filling up former crevices there, and by other processes not so easily detected, exercise an immediate and great influence over these fountains. During the dreadful earthquake that shook the island to its very centre, in 1784, not only did the greater geyser shoot up with increased violence, but no fewer than thirty-five new boiling fountains made their appearance close to them. Many of these thirty-five have since wholly subsided.

The most remarkable of the geysers still in activity, next to those already described, are the *strocker*, the little geyser, and the little *strocker*. The name of *strocker* is derived from the Icelandic verb "*strocka*"—to agitate, to put in violent motion. Dr. Henderson informs us he discovered what he calls the key to this fountain, by which he thought he could make it play whenever he had a mind, and even double its usual height. He threw in a quantity of the largest stones he could collect—presently it began to roar—he advanced his head to look down the pipe or tunnel, but had scarcely time to withdraw it, when up shot the jets of boiling water carrying the stones with them, and attaining a height which he calculated at two hundred feet. Jets surpassed jets until the water in the subterranean cavern being spent, only columns of steam were emitted, and these continued to rise and roar for nearly an hour. The next day he repeated the experiment with the like success; and leaving the spot to go on his journey, he says he often looked back on the thundering column of steam, and reflected with amazement at his having given such an impulse to a body which no power on earth could control.

The little geyser is remarkable for the regularity of its discharges, playing about twelve times in twenty-four hours. Its jets, however, seldom exceed twenty feet in height.

The little strockr is still more curious, from the rapidity as well as regularity of its action, and from the eccentricity of its projection. Instead of having intervals of hours like the generality of the geysers, it plays every quarter of an hour, and instead of throwing up its waters perpendicularly, it darts them off in numerous diagonal columns. Dr. Henderson calls it "a wonderfully amusing little fountain."

Numerous other minor orifices and cavities lie round these; some of them boiling and bubbling, and being covered with the most beautiful incrustations.


From the quantity of vapor emitted from these numerous vents, it often happens that the steam unites, and forming a vast cloud, ascends, rolls, and spreads itself, till it completely covers the confined horizon and eclipses the mid-day sun. The effect produced by the reports and loud roaring of these fountains, during the stillness of night, is described as being peculiarly impressive. On the brow of the neighboring hill, nearly two hundred feet above the level of the great geyser, there are several holes of boiling clay, some of which produce sulphur and efflorescence of alum. On the reverse of the same hill, and at its base, are more than twenty other hot springs.

Among the other boiling fountains in different parts of the island, travelers have particularly described those in the narrow valley near Reykium. There, some of the springs, which do not erupt, but regularly contain water at the temperature of 200° of Fahrenheit, are used by the Icelanders for boiling, for washing their clothes, and other domestic purposes. Beyond these occur extensive banks of hot sulphur and hot clay. At the immediate edge of the valley are two large geysers frequently in eruption. They are situated at the base of a beetling mountain, whose rugged crags rise about five hundred feet above the springs. It has been calculated that, during an eruption, one of these two geysers throws up 59,064 gallons of water every minute.

Not far from this spot, numerous hot springs exist in the bed of a considerable river, and the quantity of boiling water they emit is so great that it cannot be kept under by the cold water of the river, but forcing its way upwards, it bubbles and spouts above the surface of the stream.



## WHIRLPOOLS.

HEN we consider that three-fourths of the entire surface of our globe is covered with water, and that this water is in a constant state of agitation, more or less violent, it is natural to suppose that there must be various causes for this agitation, since some portions of sea or ocean are circumstanced so very different from others. We shall probably find that there are three sources whence this disturbance is derived: first, the action of winds blowing over the surface of the water, and disturbing it to a small depth; second, the tides, caused by the attraction of the sun and moon, and which influence the whole body of water on the surface of the globe; third, currents in the ocean, brought about by local and partially acting causes. It is to some of the latter that we shall direct our present attention.

Two of the most remarkable and constant currents are those which flow from the poles towards the equator, and from one continent to another in a direction from east to west near the equator. Both of these are caused mainly by the rotation of the earth on its axis. Whatever has a spinning or whirling motion has a tendency to be thrown off from the center or axis of rotation; and as the water near the poles is nearer to the earth's axis than that at the equator, it is driven from the former position towards the latter by the rotation of the earth, and thus gives rise to currents which are known to flow from the poles towards the equator. When Captain Parry endeavored to reach the North Pole on the ice, he found that a current was carrying the ice on which he walked more rapidly towards the south than he was walking towards the north.

A ship going from Europe to America sails nearly to the latitude of the Canary Islands before it begins to cross the Atlantic, in order to avail itself of a current constantly flowing westward in that latitude. A similar current, and flowing in a similar direction, is met with in crossing the Pacific Ocean from America to Asia. This tropical current is probably occasioned by the rotation of the earth, by which the water on the surface is somewhat retarded or left behind in its course; that is, it moves onward not quite so fast as the earth beneath it, and therefore appears relatively to be moving in an opposite direction, that is from east to west, the earth moving from west to east.

These currents would be uniform and unchanging were it not for the interruption occasioned by continents. But as the ocean is studded with continents and islands, over which it cannot flow, the currents are arrested and turned into other directions, and thus give rise to various smaller currents in almost every part of the world. Sometimes a current, meeting with an island, is broken or separated by it, and flows around both sides of it, then the two branches meet on the farther side of the island, and cause an agitation which sometimes produces an extraordinary effect. Sometimes a part of the bed of the ocean is hollowed out into a gulf, and if a strong,

current flows over it, or if two currents meet there, a vortex or whirlpool, is occasioned. When therefore we hear of whirlpools, we may in general consider the name to apply to a spot where opposing currents meet, and whirl round each other with great velocity, forming frequently a vortex into which ships are drawn.

One of the most remarkable instances of this kind is the *Maelstrom*, off the coast of Norway. There are two islands, called Lofoden and Moskoe, between which the depth of the water is about forty fathoms; but on the other side of Moskoe the depth is scarcely sufficient for the safe passage of a vessel. At flood-tide the water rushes between the two islands with great force; but at ebb-tide the violence is so extreme that scarcely any cataract equals the roar which is heard, and which is audible to a distance of several leagues; and it forms vortices or pits of such an extent and power, that if a ship comes within their attraction, it is drawn in, carried down to the bottom of the sea in a whirl or spiral, and dashed to pieces, the wrecks being thrown up again when the sea becomes calmer. This calmness only exists for about a quarter of an hour, at the turn of the ebb and flood. When the stream, heightened by a storm, is at its greatest violence, it is dangerous to come within two or three miles of it; boats, ships, and yachts have been drawn in before they were aware of their danger. Whales have been known to be drawn into the vortex, notwithstanding all their efforts to extricate themselves; and on one occasion, a bear, in attempting to swim from Lofoden to Moskoe, to prey upon the sheep who were pasturing on the latter island, was similarly engulfed, roaring terribly when he found his danger. Branches of firs and pines, after being absorbed by the vortex, rise again torn to pieces; which seems indicative of the rocky nature of the bottom. In 1645, early in the morning of Sexagesima Sunday, the whirlpool raged with such noise and impetuosity, that, on the island of Moskoe, the very stones of the houses fell to the ground.

An American captain visited the Maelstrom at one of its calmer moments, and thus describes it: "We began to near it about 10 A. M., in the month of September, with a fine north-west wind. Two good seamen were placed at the helm, the mate on the quarter-deck, all hands at their station for working ship, and the pilot standing on the bowsprit between the night-heads. I went on the main-topsail yard, with a good glass. I had been seated but a few minutes when my ship entered the dish of the whirlpool. The velocity of the water altered her course three points toward the center, although she was going eight knots through the water. This alarmed me for a moment: I thought that destruction was inevitable. She, however, answered her helm sweetly, and we ran along the edge, the waves foaming round us in every form while she was dancing gaily over them. Imagine to yourself an immense circle running round, of a diameter of a mile and a half, the velocity increasing as it approximated towards the center, and gradually changing its dark blue color to white; foaming, tumbling, rushing to its vortex; very much concave, as much so as the water in a funnel when half run out; the noise, too, hissing, roaring, dashing—all pressing on the mind at once, presented the most awful, grand, and solemn sight I ever experienced. We were near it about 18 minutes, and in sight of it two hours. From its magnitude I should not doubt that instant destruction would be the fate of a dozen of our largest ships, were they drawn in at the same moment."



Opinions as to the cause of the Maelstrom are not free from the contradiction which may be expected where the danger of a near approach is so great. Kircher entertained the extravagant opinion that there was an abyss at the bottom of the Maelstrom, which after penetrating a considerable distance into the earth communicated with the distant gulf of Bothnia. M. Schelderup, however, conceives that nothing more is necessary for the explanation than the admission of two opposing currents contending with each other. It is found that while the tide is flowing from north to south, in the neighboring ocean, a stream or current is flowing from south to north between the two islands; and it is believed that the periodical change of the tide every six hours, the change in the opposite direction of the current between the isles, and the frequent collision between them, are sufficient to occasion a whirlpool between the islands. Nothing, however, but a knowledge of the nature of the bed of the sea between the islands will fully explain the whole phenomenon.

Sibbald has described a remarkable temporary whirlpool among the group of islands called the Orcades. The whirlpool is not fixed to any particular place, but appears in various parts of the limits of the sea among the islands. Wheresoever it appears it is extremely violent, and boats, managed by persons not familiar with the spot, would inevitably be drawn in and destroyed. But the people who are accustomed to it always carry with them an empty cask, a log of wood, a large bundle of straw, or some other object in their boat. As soon as they perceive the whirlpool, they throw the bait, we may perhaps call it, into the vortex; the substance thrown in, whatever it may be, is whirled round into the center, and carried under water. As soon as this is done, the surface of the water lately occupied by the whirlpool becomes calm and smooth, and the boat can be safely rowed over it. The vortex is then, after some time, seen to rise up at some distant spot.

There is a saying, which, from its antiquity, has become common property, that "In avoiding Scylla, we rush into Charybdis;" applied when, in seeking to avoid one danger, we rush into another. The allusion is to a dangerous spot in the Mediterranean. Sicily is separated from Italy by the Strait of Messina. On one side of this strait is the rock called *Scylla*, about two hundred feet high; and on the other side a whirlpool, or something approaching to it in character, called *Charybdis*; and the passage between these two was looked upon as awfully dangerous by the ancients. The imagery of the ancient Greeks transformed these into two sea-monsters ready to devour all that came between them. Virgil says:—

Far on the right her dogs fowl Scylla hides; }  
 Charybdis roaring on the left presides, }  
 And in her greedy whirlpool sucks the tides, }  
 Then spouts them from below; with fury driven  
 The waves mount up, and wash the face of heaven.  
 But Scylla from her den, with open jaws,  
 The sinking vessel in her eddy draws,  
 Then dashes on the rocks."

There are circumstances which seem to show that Charybdis is very similar in its cause to the Maelstrom. The Charybdis is observable when the current is passing through the strait; but at intervals of about six hours, when the direction of the current changes, there is a calm for about a quarter of an hour. Spallanzani visited the Charybdis, in order to deter-

mine whether it was in reality a whirlpool, which is generally understood as a revolving portion of water, tending towards a depressed vortex in the center. As he approached Charybdis, it appeared like a group of tumultuous waters, increasing in size as he came nearer. There was a revolving motion within a small circle of about a hundred feet in diameter, within which was an incessant undulation of agitated waters, which fell, beat, and dashed against one another. Still, although his bark was rocked and beaten to and fro very violently, Spallanzani was enabled to cross the Charybdis, and found that there was not the all-absorbing circular motion which renders the Maelstrom so dangerous. On questioning the pilots respecting the appearance of the spot when at its greatest degree of agitation, he learned that when the current and the wind are opposed to each other, and both violent, the disturbance is at its height. It then contains three or four small whirlpools, or even more, according to the degree of its violence. If at this time small vessels are driven into the Charybdis by the wind or the current, they are seen to whirl round, rock, and plunge, but are never drawn into the vortex; they only sink when filled with water by the waves dashing over them. When larger vessels are forced into it, they cannot extricate themselves, whatever wind they may have; their sails are useless; and after having been for some time tossed about by the waves, they are in danger, if not managed by skillful pilots, of being dashed on a neighboring rock, wrecked, and the crew destroyed.


The manner in which the rock Scylla adds to the danger of the strait, appears to be this. If a ship extricate itself from the vortex, and is carried by a strong southerly wind, it will emerge from the strait in safety; but should it meet with a northerly wind, it is likely to be driven on the rock of Scylla, unless navigated by skillful pilots. There seems no reason to believe that the Strait of Messina is less difficult and dangerous than it was in the times commemorated by Virgil and Homer; and we may therefore conclude that the dissipation of the terrors which it was wont to excite is greatly due to the improvements in navigation, by which the power of the mariner to avoid such dangers is greatly increased; partly also to the fact that such things are now investigated in the sober tone befitting science, and freed from the poetic exaggeration formerly used in describing them.

There is in Greece a remarkable irregularity or disturbance in the waters of a narrow strait, which, though not precisely a whirlpool, has its origin probably from a similar source. The island of Negropont (anciently Eubœa) is divided from the main continent of Greece by a narrow strait, formerly called the Euripus. In this strait the currents or tides have, from the earliest ages, been marked for their irregularity. It was observed by the Jesuit Babin, that in the first eight days of the lunar month, and from the 14th to the 20th inclusive, and also in the three last days, it is regular both in its ebb and flood; but on the other days of the month it is very irregular, the ebb and flood returning sometimes eleven, twelve, thirteen, or even fourteen times within twenty-four hours. The cause of this phenomenon has not been fully explained, but there can be little doubt that opposing and contending currents are the chief source.

We have not space to adduce other instances of phenomena partaking of the nature of whirlpools; nor is it necessary for us to do so, for the descriptions of the Maelstrom and of Charybdis are sufficiently illustrative of their nature and aspect generally.

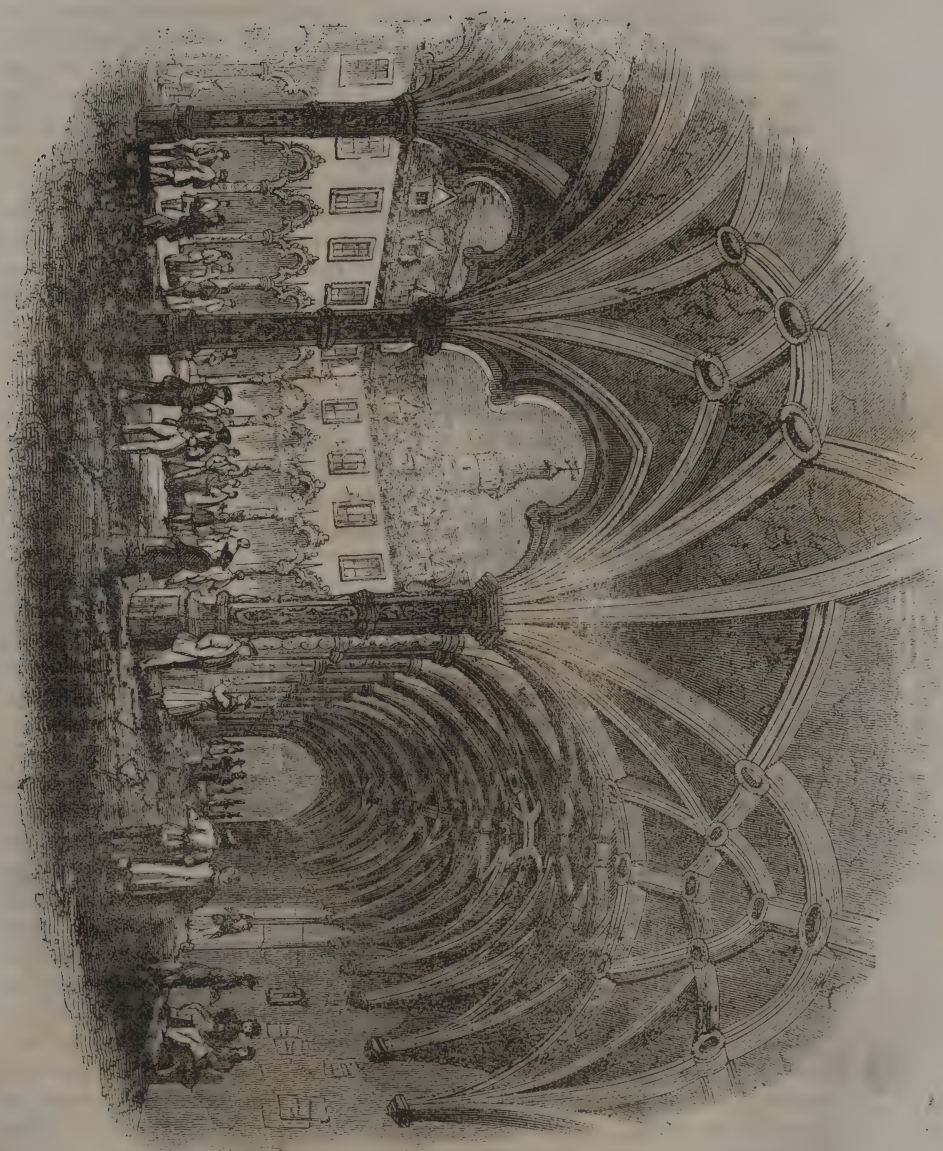


## COMMERCE OF ANTWERP.

NE of the most fruitful sources of interest to which an historian, at once accurate in details and philosophical in his general views, could direct his attention, would be the vicissitudes of commerce, and the causes which have successively rendered first one place and then another the chief marts of the trade and industry of nations. Such a subject, instead of being far removed from the common direction of human sympathies, is closely allied to them.

To trace the early dawning of national industry amongst any people, to estimate the benefits which it more or less diffuses, the sordid habits of existence out of which it raises them, and the comforts and wealth which are supplied in its advancing course,—and then to picture an ensuing period of decline, of the decay of individual fortunes, and of the fall and final extinction of national greatness, until the places which once resounded with the voices of busy and active men, are visited only in long after ages by the curious traveler, who explores their scattered ruins in search of relics of their former splendor;—these successive changes of human interests suggest to the imagination considerations which are strongly affecting. But there is this consolation in reflecting upon the apparent fickleness of commerce, that it has generally been the folly and blindness of men which have driven her from place to place, though they choose to fix the blame upon some inherent cause from which it would be useless to expect stability. Those fluctuations which are to be attributed to natural causes—to some newly discovered path to the richest producing countries—though they may have occasioned local effects of a trying nature, have always been the means of developing and extending more widely the advantages of commercial intercourse. As men become more enlightened in their general views, we may expect fewer instances of commercial vicissitude; and the principal causes which have most powerfully contributed in past times to bring about changes in the direction of trade, must at all events exercise a smaller degree of influence than they have hitherto done.

England was almost the last amongst European nations in obtaining its proper share of commerce. How far it now outstrips them in this respect, it is not necessary to show at present. They were preceded by the Hans Towns, the French, the Venetians, the Flemings, Portuguese, and Dutch, who each enjoyed, at various intervals, a considerable portion of foreign trade, while that of England was insignificant or had scarcely any existence. Foreign wars, internal dissensions, and ill-judged restrictions, restrained the nation from pursuing a course so well adapted to its position and the character and energy of its population. In the fourteenth and part of the fifteenth centuries the Netherlands was the principal seat of European commerce. Bruges had long been the emporium of trade and the great dépôt for the productions of the north and south of Europe. The spectacle of industry and its attendant wealth and splendor, which





presented itself to the traders who frequented Bruges from every quarter of Europe, furnished a useful lesson on the advantages which the arts of useful life were capable of conferring, and might have the effect of diverting neighboring sovereigns, who wasted their resources in war, to more gainful and peaceful courses. Sluys was the seaport of Bruges, from which, by a fine canal about nine miles in length, vessels were enabled to unload in the heart of the city. In 1482, in consequence of some dispute between the Bourgeois of Bruges and the Archduke Maximilian, the port of Sluys was blocked up, and the sources of the wealth of Bruges were seriously injured. The great trade of which it had been the centre was transferred to Antwerp, which had long been only inferior to itself in commercial importance, and which possessed greater natural advantages. It was 45 miles from the mouth of a fine tide-river, which also commanded a considerable extent of back country, and was convenient to navigators arriving either from the north or south of Europe. Before the commerce of Venice had become of importance, Antwerp had traded in the productions of the East with the ports of the Baltic and Russia, where they had been brought overland by the Black Sea. After the Crusades, these productions found their way to the west through the Mediterranean, and this circumstance gave the commerce of Venice its temporary supremacy. When the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope was discovered, Venetian commerce necessarily declined. But under all these vicissitudes the trade of Antwerp continued to flourish. The wisdom of its commercial regulations attracted traders of every country, who, during the great fairs, which lasted several weeks, sold their goods free from customs' duty. The Portuguese, who commanded the market for the productions of India, found Antwerp the best place for the disposal of their rich cargoes, and it became the grand central dépôt for the natural and manufactured commodities of the East, at which the merchants of Germany and Northern Europe, and those of France and England, were accustomed to make their wholesale purchases, and to bring in exchange the produce and manufactures of their respective countries, which were bought by the Portuguese, Spaniards, Italians, and merchants of the south of Europe. The trade of England with Spain was all carried on through this medium, all Spanish exports being sent in the first instance to the Flemish mart. The English were the largest purchasers of mercery, haberdashery, and groceries, of any nation. The competition of buyers and sellers had the most beneficial influence upon the interests of industry, by breaking down the spirit of monopoly. Cheapness was the consequence of free competition, and flourishing manufactories of velvet, satin, and damask, were established at Antwerp. Besides the influx of foreigners, the commerce with the interior was of great extent. The merchandize of Hainault, France, Burgundy, Cologne, and Cambray, was brought in carts over land. It is said that 2500 vessels have laid before Antwerp at the same time. Various other statements are given for the purpose of showing the extent of its commerce, one of which is, that more business was transacted at Antwerp during one month, than at Venice within a period of two years, during the most active period of her commercial greatness. The population of Antwerp was about 200,000 in the sixteenth century.

The Exchange, a view of which is given in the cut, was built in the year 1531. The dealings of persons of different nations on so extensive a scale

rendered such place of resort necessary; and the interchange of goods naturally led to bills of exchange, which were negotiated with the greatest advantage to all parties at Antwerp. Of so much value was capital when employed in so good a market, that complaints are made by some of the old writers of the Venetian and other merchants buying wool, cloth, and tin, on credit in England, and then selling the goods in Flanders under prime cost; the interest which they received on putting out their money at usury before it became due affording an ample rate of profit on both transactions. The Antwerp Exchange was the first structure of the kind in Europe, and formed the model of the Exchanges of London and Amsterdam. It rests on pillars of blue marble, all of them carved, but each in a different style.

The commerce of Antwerp continued in a state of high prosperity until near the middle of the sixteenth century, when it received a blow from which subsequent events did not permit it to recover. Charles V. having declared war against Francis I., the Low Countries were laid under heavy and oppressive contributions, which led to frequent revolts; and many persons left the country who were amongst the most industrious of its citizens. Afterwards the great contest took place against the power of Spain, in the course of which Antwerp was pillaged (in 1567), and the northern provinces of the Netherlands threw off the tyrannical yoke of that country; but the southern provinces could not accomplish this object. Under a despotism like that of Philip, commerce could not prosper, and the merchants of Antwerp carried their persevering and industrious spirit to a freer and more congenial spot. Those who remained became beggars, and the country endured the most oppressive treatment from its masters for a series of years. In 1585, Antwerp was attacked and pillaged by the Duke of Parma's troops, after having stood a siege. Commanding the mouth of the Scheldt, they blocked up its harbors, and now commerce being completely destroyed, Amsterdam began to rise on the ruins of the trade of Antwerp. By the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, it was stipulated by Spain and Holland that the navigation of the Scheldt should be closed, and under this deadly restriction the port of Antwerp continued until the occupation of the country by the French in 1794. It was Bonaparte's intention to have revived its commercial importance, and immense sums of money were expended in the construction of docks and other works; but after all, under French rule Antwerp became a military rather than a commercial depôt. The population of the city, after the evacuation by the French, did not exceed 52,000 in 1816, but it now amounts, with the suburbs, to above 73,000. The treaty of Vienna declares that "the navigation of every river from its source to its mouth shall be free, subject only to certain duties which have hitherto been paid, and these depend on the tonnage and not on the nature of the cargo." Under these favoring circumstances commerce is reviving, and the prospects of Antwerp are more encouraging than they have been for nearly three centuries.



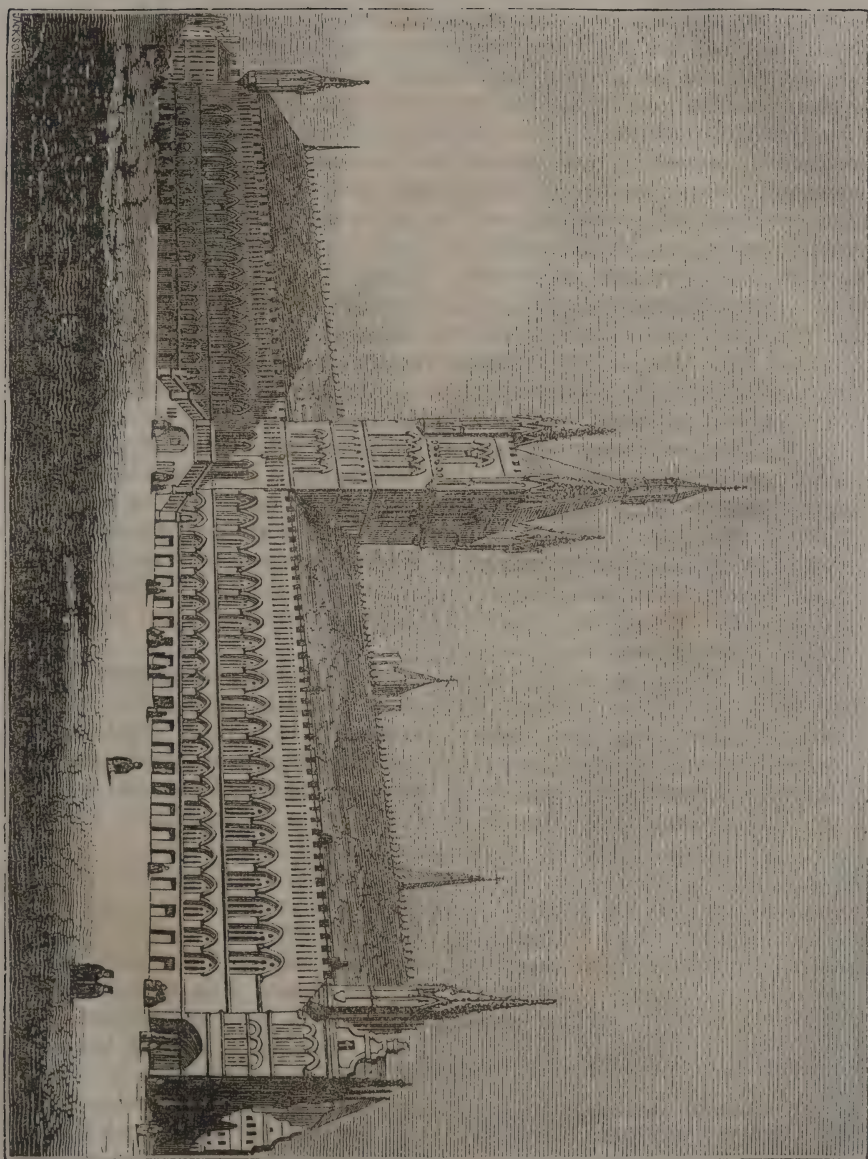
## TOWN OF YPRES.

**Y**PRES, or Ypern (for that is the Flemish name), is not now what it was of old; but it is still a considerable town, and it retains numerous memorials of its former greatness, in the public buildings with which it is crowded. It still ranks with Bruges and Ghent as one of the three chief towns of Flanders, and its population is believed to amount to about fifteen thousand inhabitants. It stands on a stream called the Yper, which flows through it from south to north, and then makes its way to the sea, into which it falls about midway between Dunkirk and Ostend. This stream descends from some grounds of very moderate elevation, a few miles from the town; the rest of the country around which is nearly a complete flat, like the greater part of the Netherlands. In this situation the town is seen from a considerable distance, and makes a handsome appearance as it rises in the midst of the plain, with its embattled walls, and its throng of spires. The extent of the present walls is not quite four English miles, making a circle of about a mile and a quarter in diameter. The surrounding country is remarkably rich and beautiful, part of it being woodland, and the rest consisting of green meadows and corn-fields, everywhere interspersed with orchards, gardens, and villages.

The pride of Ypres is its Town Hall, which stands near the centre of the town in a large open space, called the great market place. It is a magnificent building, surrounding a quadrangular space, measuring four hundred and sixty-two feet from east to west, and fifty in the opposite direction, here divided into two courts by a pile of building which crosses its centre. From the middle of the south front rises a lofty square tower, in which are a clock and bells, and which bears the appearance of being still more ancient than the rest of the building. The erection of the hall is said to have been begun in 1342, and in popular tradition the work is attributed to the English, who certainly, however, were not in possession of the place either then or at any other period. The notion seems to have originated merely in the great fame which the English had acquired in these parts by their warlike achievements, and which made them to be regarded as the authors of every thing wonderful. We have another vestige of this popular veneration for the memory of the English, in the tradition which deduces the name of the city itself from the celebrated British warrior, called Iper, who is imagined to have built and colonized it. We do not know if there is any more truth than there usually is in these idle stories, in a statement which Antonius Sanderus makes respecting this Town Hall, in his splendid work entitled "*Flandria Illustrata*." He says that there never has been seen in it either a spider or a cobweb; and he accounts for the circumstance, by imputing it, not to the superior dusting and scrubbing of his countrymen, but to some supposed quality of the wood.

The city of Ypres, however, is more interesting on account of what it formerly was than for what it now is. It still contains some manufactures

TOWN HALL OF YPRES.






of cloth, serges, ribands, and thread; but at one time its inhabitants appear to have formed the greatest manufacturing community in the world. A census of the population taken in 1342, made it amount to above two hundred thousand souls. Soon after this, however, its decline began. In a French edition of Ludovico Guicciardini's "Description of the Low Countries," published at Antwerp, in 1609, it is remarked, that whensoever and in what quantity soever the rain of adversity had in former days fallen upon Ghent and Bruges, Ypres had always received some drops of it; and that this city, indeed, being the weakest of the three, had often been severely punished, and obliged to pay the forfeit for misdeeds which the other two had committed. All these towns suffered both by the attacks of foreign enemies and by their own internal dissensions. The middle of the fourteenth century was in the Netherlands, as in France and in England, the age of political convulsion—of the first considerable efforts, since the establishment of the feudal institutions, made by the body of the people, to throw off the oppressive yoke under which they were everywhere kept down. Some contemporary writers attribute these tumults of the commonalty to the improvement which had now taken place in their condition, as compared with that of their forefathers; and there can be no doubt that there is much truth in this representation. As long as the condition of the people was one of almost brutal destitution and misery, they submitted to be treated like the inferior animals; but as they gradually outgrew this absolute penury and helplessness, they became more indisposed to endure the oppression to which they were subjected, and began first to murmur against it, and then to attempt to throw it off. The attempt, as was to be expected, was not skillfully directed in the first instance, and was productive of no immediate good effects; but it prepared the way for future and more successful struggles. It served at least as an example, and that once given, the rest followed of course.

For this leading step in the onward march of civilization, we are mainly indebted to the citizens of Ypres and other Flemish towns. The cloth-weavers of these towns were the first commonalty in Europe, who became, to a certain extent, independent of their feudal lords, and acquired a degree of inherent power and importance by means of manufactures and trade. They were accordingly the first to rise in extensive and formidable concert against the system of misrule by the grandees and lords of the soil which then universally prevailed. And from the Netherlands the movement was propagated into other countries. English liberty in particular is probably much indebted to these sturdy burghers. Edward III. brought over to England large numbers of these cloth-workers from the Netherlands, who, settling there, communicated to the laboring classes their own arts and habits of industry, and may also be supposed to have transmitted and diffused that new spirit of liberty which had principally induced them to leave the land of their birth. Elizabeth also, long after, again increased the population of the island by opening her ports to those mechanics of the Low Countries who were driven abroad, in her day, by the tyrannical conduct of the Spanish government of that province, as administered by the notorious Duke of Alva.

The first insurrection of the Flemings, however, against their princes, was, as we have observed, attended with very disastrous results to Ypres and the other towns, whose inhabitants engaged in it. "Before the commence-

ment of these wars in Flanders," says Froissart, in commencing his account of the attempt made by the people, in the latter part of the fourteenth century, to restrain the oppressions of their governors, "the country was so fertile, and everything in such abundance, that it was marvellous to see, and the inhabitants of the principal towns lived in very grand state." But the war laid all this prosperity waste. "The people," he says, "were very murderous and cruel, and multitudes were slain or driven out of the country. The country itself was so much ruined, that it was said a hundred years would not restore it to the situation it was in before the war."

## THE CASTLE OF EHRENBREITSTEIN.

N the right bank of the Rhine, upon the summit of a rocky hill, directly opposite to the city of Coblenz, stands the castle of Ehrenbreitstein ("the broad stone of honor"). It is now one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, both in respect of its natural position, and its artificial defences. It was originally a Roman camp, was renovated in 1160, and afterwards repaired and enlarged by the Elector John, Margrave of Baden, who dug a well of the depth of 280 feet, which was afterwards sunk 300 feet further. During the revolutionary war, the castle was exposed to many hazards. General Marceau blockaded it for a month when the French army first passed the Rhine, in September, 1795. It was twice blockaded in 1796, and cannonaded the second time from the neighboring heights of Pfaffendorf and Arzheim, without sustaining any injury. The French got possession of the height of Rellenkopf, but without any further success, and the retreat of General Jourdan obliged them to raise the siege. It was again blockaded in 1797 by the French General Hoche, who kept it so till the peace of Léoben; and in 1798 it was once more blockaded by the French, whilst the Congress of Radstadt was sitting, and was reduced to such a state of famine, that the defenders are said to have lived, among other things, upon cats and horse-flesh; cats being sold at three francs each, and horse-flesh at a franc per pound. In spite of the exertions of the commandant, Colonel Faber, and his earnest representations to the Congress, the castle was left to its fate, and finally surrendered to the French in January, 1799. The French blew up and otherwise destroyed great part of the works; and the accompanying view shows it in the state to which it was reduced by them. The convention of Paris at the termination of the war, in 1815, determined to reëstablish the fortifications, and Ehrenbreitstein, with the adjoining fortifications of the Chartreuse and Petersberg, is now the most important fortress of the German frontier. The ancient monastery of the Chartreuse commands the approaches from Mayence and Hundsruh; Petersberg, those of Trêves and Cologne; and Ehrenbreitstein, the Rhine and the road from Nassau. The form and durability of the new works have been much admired. They have been constructed from the plans of Montalembert and Carnot, and the castle has





VIEW OF EHRENBREITSTEIN FROM THE RHINE.

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received the official name of "Fort Frederic-William," in honor of the King of Prussia. The works are shown to visitors, on their obtaining permission of the commandant.

The view from the summit of the castle is a very rich and extensive one. Before you is Coblenz, its bridge of boats, and its two islands on the Rhine; behind it, the village and the beautiful ruins of the Chartreuse, upon a hill covered with vines and fruit-trees. The scope of the view embraces more than thirty towns and villages. The Rhine flows majestically beneath it, and is here at about the widest part of its course. The space of about 120 miles between Mayence and Cologne, in which Coblenz stands midway, is that where the Rhine is broadest, and its scenery the most picturesque. The view of this old castle naturally leads us to reflect on the degree in which modern Europe has ceased to resemble the classic ages in which Ehrenbreitstein was founded, or the feudal ages to which so much of its history belongs. It still bears the name of "the broad stone of honor," though many say that the days of honor have passed away with the days of chivalry. But if honor, in these times, has become rather a synonymous term for honesty and good faith, than the fantastic touchstone of chivalry, we have gained greatly by the change.

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## DOVER CASTLE.

**A**T the south-eastern corner of England, upon the summit of a chalk cliff from 350 to 400 feet in height, and at the distance of about twenty-one miles from the opposite coast of France, stands Dover Castle. The town of Dover has been built to the west of, and immediately below it. The antiquity of the castle very far exceeds that of the town; and all the latter contains worthy of remark is of modern date. It is, however, generally known as the key to the Continent, and as possessing a very complete artificial harbor. The coasts of Sussex and Kent, as well as the opposite coast of France, are without natural harbors; but as a proof how far art has supplied this want, the harbors of Dover and Ramsgate, among others, may be referred to.

The fortifications of the castle are of different epochs, Roman, Saxon, Norman, and of later date. The watchtower (an octagonal building), the parapet, the peculiar form of the ditch, all exhibit the hand of the Roman architect; and there is no doubt that the Romans had here one of their stationary posts, or walled encampments. The foundations of the watchtower are laid in a bed of clay, which was the usual practice with the Roman masons; and it is built with a stalactical composition instead of stone, intermixed with courses of Roman tiles. The watch-tower and the ancient church are the only remaining buildings within the Roman fortress. What the precise origin of this church was is not known, but it was consecrated to Christian worship by St. Augustine when he was in England in the sixth century.





DOVER CASTLE—VIEW FROM THE BEACH.

The Saxons extended the groundwork of the Roman fortress, and erected a fortress differing materially from that of the Romans, as it consisted merely of perpendicular sides without parapets, surrounded by deep ditches. In the centre of the old Saxon works is the keep, which is, however, of Norman origin, the foundation having been laid in 1153. It is a massy square edifice, the side on the south-west being 103 feet; that on the north-west 108 feet; and the other two 123 feet each. The north turret of the keep is 95 feet above the ground, which is 373 feet above the level of the sea. The view from it, in a clear day, comprises the North Foreland, Ramsgate pier, the Isle of Thanet, the valley of Dover, and the towns of Calais and Boulogne, with the intermediate French coast. The rest of the fortifications are, for the most part, of Norman origin, but present the altered and improved appearance which has been given them by a succession of repairs for a course of centuries.

During the French Revolution it was considered important to secure and defend Dover Castle as a military station. Fifty thousand pounds were voted for this purpose; and miners and other laborers were employed to excavate the rock for purposes of defence, and to cast up additional mounds and ramparts. Extensive barracks were excavated in the solid rock, by which accommodations were provided for a garrison of three or four thousand men. The subterranean rooms and passages are shown to visitors, upon an order of the military commandant being obtained. There is an armory in the keep; and many ancient curiosities are to be seen here, among which is Queen Elizabeth's pocket-pistol, a beautiful piece of brass ordnance presented to Elizabeth by the States of Holland, as a token of respect for the assistance she afforded them against Spain. It is twenty-four feet long, and bears a Dutch inscription, of which the following is a translation:—

"O'er hill and dale I throw my ball;  
Breaker, my name, of mound and wall."

In Lyon's History of Dover, in two volumes quarto, or in a smaller work published by William Batcheller at Dover, may be found the detailed history of this castle, one remarkable event in which is, that on the 21st of August, 1625, it was surprised and wrested from the King's garrison by a merchant of Dover, named Blake, with only ten of his townsmen, who kept possession of it for the Parliament, and effectually resisted the King's troops. It is also worth notice, that on the 7th of January, 1785, Dr. Jefferies and M. Blanchard embarked in a balloon from the castle heights, and having crossed the channel in safety, descended in the forest of Guisnes in France.

To the west of Dover, opposite the castle, is the celebrated Shakspeare cliff, described in the tragedy of King Lear. It is 350 feet high, and almost perpendicular. The late Sir Walter Scott, when at Dover a few years since on his road to Paris, said to a gentleman who was speaking to him of this cliff: "Shakspeare was a lowland man, and I am a highland man; it is therefore natural that he should make much more of this chalk cliff than I can do, who live among the black mountains of Scotland." The fact is that the cliff is remarkable for its form, but is by no means so awful or majestic as might be supposed, after reading King Lear.



## AUSTRALIA AND ITS GOLD.

**A**USTRALIA—the Southern Land—is the name now given to that great Island-continent formerly called New Holland, lying between the parallels of  $10^{\circ}$  and  $40^{\circ}$  south latitude, and those of  $112^{\circ}$  and  $154^{\circ}$  east longitude from Greenwich. The extreme length of the island from east to west is about 2500 miles, and its utmost breadth from north to south is about 2000 miles, the mean length and breadth being each some 500 miles less. The coast line is indented upon the north by the deep Gulf of Carpentaria, and upon the south by the great Australian Bight. The distance between the northern and southern shores at these opposite indentations is something more than a thousand miles. The whole island has a superficial area of between three and four millions of square miles; and may be stated, with sufficient accuracy for general purposes, to be equal in extent to the United States or the whole of Europe.

For a great part of its circumference, the island is surrounded by almost continuous ranges of mountains or highlands, in no place attaining a very considerable altitude, and for long distances consisting of elevated plateaus, or table-lands, with isolated peaks and detached chains springing above the general level. There is, however, along all these chains a continuous height of land or water-shed which is never broken through, and which never recedes to any very great distance from the coast. The inhabitable portions of the island are limited to the slopes of these mountains and the space between them and the coast. The width of this habitable belt, in those parts which have been explored and settled, is from two to three hundred miles; but is probably much less in the remainder of the island. The interior consists wholly of an immense depressed plain, more hopelessly barren and uninhabitable than the desert of Sahara. Australia therefore presents a smaller proportion of habitable territory than either of the other great divisions of the globe.

This great interior desert has probably never been traversed by the foot of man; and only two or three expeditions have ever penetrated far into its depths. The farthest point attained was by Captain Sturt in 1844. He made his way some four hundred miles beyond the habitable limits, which brought him very nearly into the geographical centre of the island. This he found occupied by an immense plain covered with ridges of drifting sand, often rising to the height of eighty or a hundred feet, and stretching away in either direction as far as the eye could reach. In isolated spots grew a few solitary tufts of grass, the necessary moisture for whose sustenance was supplied by infrequent thunder showers. Permanent water there was none, and the sand was heated to such a degree that a match dropped upon it became instantly ignited. The thermometer on one occasion rose to  $153^{\circ}$  in the coolest place to be found. In the midst of this sterile tract was a desert of still deeper gloom, which was traced for a distance of eighty miles in one direction, and thirty-five miles in the other. Its surface was paved with a solid bed of dark ironstone, upon which the

horses' hoofs rung as upon a metallic floor, but left not the least impression, and in which not the slightest trace of water or vegetation was found.

Mr. Leichardt, a German naturalist, succeeded in penetrating from the settlements on the eastern coast through the unexplored interior to the northern side of the island; but his course only led him along the skirts of the great central desert; yet more than once even here he was saved from perishing from thirst by following the flight of the bronze-winged pigeon directing its course to some solitary water-hole. In 1846 he set out on a new journey, intending to pass from the east through the central desert to the little colony on the western shore. The journey was expected to occupy two and a half years. In April, 1848, a letter was received from him written upon the verge of habitation, since which time his fate is unknown; but he doubtless perished long ago in the great desert.

When it was ascertained that no rivers from the interior reached the sea-coast it was supposed that a great inland lake existed which received the central waters; and that navigable streams would be discovered, leading into the interior. This opinion was apparently supported by the fact that one river at least, the Victoria, poured a large current directly into the interior; but Captain Sturt traced its course, and instead of augmenting in size, it decreased as he followed it down, dwindling into a succession of water-holes, and was finally lost among the barren sands.

The mountain chains of which mention has been made, constitute the leading feature in the physical geography of Australia, determining as they do the character of its river-system, and consequently the whole character of the country. The principal of these ranges runs in a general north and south course along the eastern shore of the island. The name of the Australian Cordilleras has been proposed for this whole chain; but at present it is known by different names in different parts of its course. It attains its greatest altitude near the southern extremity, where Mount Kosciusko, the highest peak, rises to the height of 6500 feet, an elevation equal to that of Mount Washington in our White Mountains. This part of the range is called the White Mountains, and though not covered with perpetual snow, is elevated enough to feel the affluents of the Murray River, almost the only Australian stream, which has running water at all times. As this range of mountains goes northward towards the equator, its height diminishes until at its northern extremity it is merely a chain of slight hills. This great eastern chain is not, however, a continuous ridge, but for a considerable part of its course a succession of broad plateaus and elevated table-lands, from which spring separate peaks and minor ranges, sometimes running parallel to and sometimes at various angles with its general course. There is a well-defined height of land or water-shed, which is nowhere broken through, and maintains a nearly uniform distance of eighty or a hundred miles from the shore. Great spurs frequently shoot out from the main range, running down to the sea-coast on the one side, or striking off toward the interior on the other.

Farther west a smaller chain leaves the southern coast, but after a course of a few hundred miles is lost in the central desert. The western and northern shores are in like manner furnished with chains running parallel to their course, as laid down on the map. These, however, are less elevated than the eastern chain; but like that present a continuous water-shed at no great distance from the coast. The southern coast only is destitute of this



bounding ridge; and here, for a great portion of its extent, the great central desert appears to extend down to the sea-shore.

As the mountains in which the Australian streams take their rise are so near the coast, the rivers have but a short course, and are mostly incapable of navigation. Few of them, indeed, are navigable twenty miles from their mouths. And as the mountains mostly fall far below the line of perpetual snow, the rivers are fed merely by the rains, and consequently vary greatly in the amount of water. The large maps of Australia are marked with a network of rivers, conveying the idea of a country abundantly watered. But there the actual presence of water is not at all essential to the existence of a river; all that is involved is, a channel down which water has flowed, or may flow. A river, except in seasons of flood, is generally a mere succession of water-holes, at the bottom of a deep ravine, sometimes connected by a scanty stream, and sometimes entirely insulated; and in times of drought even these disappear altogether. So too what are laid down on the maps as lakes, are but valleys filled with soft mud, growing more and more moist toward the centre, where water may perhaps exist.

The settled portions of Australia occupying the same general position in south latitude that we do in north, their seasons are the reverse of our own. New Year's day falls in midsummer, and the Dog-days come at Christmas, to the great detriment of young Australian poets, who can make no use of the stock phrases of "rosy May," "bleak December," "Christmas fires," and the like.

The latitude of the colonies corresponds to that of Florida, the Carolinas, and Virginia, but the temperature and productions are varied more by position and elevation than by latitude. The daily range of the thermometer is greater than with us; but the annual range of the mean temperature is much less. Thus, at Sydney, though the thermometer sometimes rises to  $118^{\circ}$ , the mean temperature during the summer months is but  $67^{\circ}$ , and that of the winter months is  $57^{\circ}$ . In this respect the climate approximates to that of Italy. The climate of Australia is beyond all doubt one of the most salubrious and healthful in the world, and is extremely favorable to physical and intellectual vigor. Owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, the absence of marshes, and of rank vegetation, those intermittent fevers and agues are utterly unknown, which "do so shake from their propriety" the settlers in most new countries; and the inhabitants sleep in the open air with the most absolute impunity.

The soil presents some singular anomalies, especially in respect to the distribution of the fertile portions. In other countries the fertile tracts lie usually in masses, and generally along the courses of the rivers. In Australia they occur in insulated patches, and most frequently upon the sides and summits of the hills. These fertile tracts are continually intersected by broad plains, the soil of which is too light for cultivation, though forming the most admirable pasturage in the world, or by barren tracts furrowed by ravines, and clothed with scrub, entirely destitute of value. The best authorities assure us that of the land worth occupying, not more than one-third is fit for cultivation; the remaining two-thirds being only available for pasture-grounds.

The productiveness of the land adapted for agricultural purposes is very great, and the range of available productions is wide. With few exceptions the trees, fruits, vegetables, and cerealia of the temperate zone flourish,

besides many of those belonging to those tropical regions farthest removed from the equator. This is the more remarkable, because every thing of the kind is exotic.

When Australia was taken possession of by the European race, scarcely half a century ago, it was by far the most destitute of natural productions of any habitable land on the globe. No species of grain was known to the natives; not a single fruit worthy of note grew wild; not an edible root of any value was produced. The only game was the shy kangaroo, and a few species of birds; domestic animals were unknown; and the only carnivorous animal was the *dingo* or native dog.

In some districts, especially upon the seaward slope of the hills, where there is an accumulation of moisture, the forests present something of a tropical character; lofty trees spread their umbrageous branches about, with great cable-like creepers climbing from tree to tree, forming an almost impervious mass. But the prevalent native tree is the "gum-tree." These trees usually stand wide apart, their bare stems covered with ragged bark like worn-out matting. The leaves are few and scattered, so that they afford but little shade. They spread over the most barren and rocky ground, where there is apparently not a particle of soil. The ground is destitute of underbrush, but scattered around on the brown surface are old decayed branches and trunks often blackened by fire, with which also the still living trees are frequently scarred. This is "the Bush"—the scene of so much wild romance and startling adventure in the early days of the colony.

But the "Plains" are the characteristic feature of Australia. These are open park-like intervals, where the gum-trees stand singly or in clumps, and the undulating ground is covered with rich and luxuriant grass. These plains sometimes stretch away for hundreds of miles, over the broad plateaus and table-lands, or are broken by rocky ranges, and end in deep gullies. Over these plains the stockman drives his herds, or the shepherd his flocks, for days or weeks, without meeting any serious interruption to his progress, or without failure of the pasturage except in seasons of drought. These plains are the feeding-places of those mighty herds of cattle and horses, and those vast droves of sheep, "of noble race, whose feet"—so runs the old Spanish saying—"turn all they touch to gold." Those plains are the sources of wealth to Australia, more permanent, and perhaps not less valuable than her new-found gold-deposits.

Captain Dirk Hartog, of the good ship *Endracht*, of Amsterdam, landed upon the western shore of Australia, Oct. 25th, 1616, as we learn from an inscription upon a plate of pewter which was found on the spot in 1801. This, as far as is certainly known, was the first time that any European had set foot on the Island. The Hollanders took the lead in exploring the shores, and gave to the island the name of New Holland; but the expedition sent out by the Dutch East India Company to examine the country, with a view to colonization, reported that it was the "abode of howling evil spirits," a country of "barren coasts, shallow water, islands thinly peopled by cruel, poor and brutal natives, and of very little use to the Company." Subsequent navigators of all nations concurred in this evil report of the land, and the tide of emigration was directed toward America.

The colonization of Australia by the British stands in close connection with that war which lost them the Thirteen American Colonies. That out-



let for the banishment of their criminal population being closed, it became a great problem how to get rid of the annual accumulation of rogues. Cook had recently made some explorations in Australia, and it was finally resolved to make the island a penal colony. The first convict fleet sailed on the 13th of May, 1787, and reached Botany Bay, which had been selected as the site for the settlement, on the 20th of the following January.

This "goodly company" of patriots "who left their country for their country's good," consisted of 565 men, 192 women, under the charge of a military force of about 200 men, with whom were 40 women, the wives of the soldiers. It was at once found that Botany Bay was an unsuitable place for the settlement, and it was formed at a distance of about 18 miles, upon the spot where now stands the city of Sydney. Botany Bay, however, long continued to be the popular name given to the whole penal colony.

The colony commenced under most unfavorable auspices. No agriculturist had been sent to teach the cultivation of the soil to those London pick-pockets whose only harvest-field had been the pockets of their neighbors. The very supply of mechanics was left to the chances of the previous pursuits of the criminals; and as it happened, there were in all but a dozen carpenters, and but one bricklayer; and not a single mechanic with skill enough to erect a corn-mill. Such were the "Pilgrim Fathers" of Australia.

In one thing they were fortunate. If the island was destitute of natural productions, there were also no warlike natives to dispute the possession with them. The aborigines were few; they cultivated no soil, built no huts, possessed no ornaments of gold and silver, and knew not the use of metals. Their dwellings consisted merely of a few bits of thick bark peeled from the trees and set upright, as a protection from the wind; a fire was built in front of the open side, and their habitation was complete. Such a hut was called a *gunyah*.

Their weapons were the club, the spear—they do not seem to have been acquainted with the bow—and the *boomerang*. This last weapon is peculiar to the aborigines of Australia, and its mode of action is a puzzle to mathematicians. It is simply a crooked piece of hard wood, three feet long and three inches broad, pointed at each end, the concave side a quarter of an inch thick, the convex side made sharp. The native takes it by one end, and flings it sickle-wise with his hand, when it of course revolves as though upon an axis. If he wishes to strike an object at a distance, he flings it toward the ground, as a boy does a flat stone upon the water, to make it "skip." And just so the boomerang goes skipping to its mark. If he wishes to throw it so that it shall fall at his own feet, he flings it at a particular angle up into the air; away goes the boomerang whizzing and whirling in ascending curves, until all at once it turns short round and flies back directly to its master. And so, by altering the angle at which it is thrown, the weapon strikes at any point behind him. In like manner, the boomerang may be thrown around an intervening object, actualizing, in a fashion, the old joke of the crooked gun to shoot around a corner. The weapon is useless in the hands of a European, being quite as likely to strike the thrower as the object aimed at; but in the hands of a native it is a formidable missile, striking from the most unsuspected direction, in spite of any defense. You sit unconcernedly behind a rock or tree, thinking yourself safe from an attack in the rear; but the boomerang doubles the corner, and is upon you. That innocent-looking native, walking off with

his back to you, may be at the instant taking aim at you with the inevitable back-flying boomerang. It doubtless originated from the necessity, in hunting the kangaroo, that the shy animal should not see his assailant; but it is singular that so barbarous a people should have invented such a weapon.

The aborigines of Australia possess a physical appearance different from any other race; or rather compounded of many. To the black color of the African, they add the straight, silky hair of the Malay, and the lean, long limbs of the Hindoo, while their language bears a remarkable affinity with that of the North American Indians. They seemed to be entirely destitute of any form of government or chieftainship, and to be merely an aggregation of separate families. Though possessing no fixed habitations, their migrations were confined within narrow limits, no family apparently exceeding fifty or sixty miles in their wanderings. Their numbers were small, never probably amounting to more than a hundred thousand souls. This paucity arose less from wars among themselves, than from the incapacity of the country for their support. Nothing came amiss to their omniverous appetites; worms and slugs were as little distasteful to them as oysters and shrimps are to us; and the larvæ of insects constituted a dainty dish. So feeble a race, of course, melted away before the rough convicts and settlers, who shot them down with as little scruple as so many kangaroos; and they are now almost extinct. The few attempts made to instruct them in the arts of civilized life, have proved utter failures.

The colony, at first, was unsuccessful enough; and was more than once reduced to the verge of starvation, being dependent for food upon supplies from the parent country. About six months after the first settlement, it is recorded, as a great calamity, that two bulls and four cows, the major part of the stock of neat cattle, had escaped into the bush, and could not be recovered—a loss, however, which subsequent events proved to be an immense gain.

We can not detail the miseries of the first few years of the colony; and of its moral and social state, it is sufficient to say that, eighteen years after its foundation, the current coin of the capital was rum, and that of the births two-thirds were illegitimate. The government was conducted at the Colonial Office in England, with that blundering, official stolidity, which has always been characteristic of British administration abroad; the result of which has been, and will be, that no sooner does a colony begin to feel its strength, than it seeks to become independent of the parent state. In the meantime free settlers began to arrive in Australia, to whom grants of land and convict labors were made, in proportion to the amount of capital they brought with them; these convicts being fed and clothed by the crown.

We must, however, glance for a moment at the system pursued in reference to the public lands, as this furnishes the key to the whole character of Australian emigration. In 1831 the free grants of land were discontinued, and the lands were ordered to be sold. The price was first fixed at five shillings an acre; and a considerable body of emigrants were attracted, of that class who were desirous of living on their own land. These, of course, brought their families, and scattered themselves over the colony, wherever they could find land upon which to settle.

In the course of time, the theory was propounded that it was desirable



to concentrate the population, and to effect this the price of land was raised to a minimum of twelve, and subsequently of twenty shillings an acre; and the quantity put up for sale at a time largely increased, with the avowed object of preventing the purchase of land by any persons except large capitalists. A further object was to keep the great body of emigrants in the condition of laborers and servants, in order that by competition the price of labor might be kept down. This is perhaps the solitary instance in modern times when legislation has been framed with the avowed object of reducing the price of labor. A portion of the sum derived from the sale of lands was appropriated to giving a free passage to emigrants who were approved by the Colonial Office at home, and whose competition in the labor market, on their arrival in Australia, would tend to keep down the price. Thus the landholder, who paid an exorbitant price for his land, had the sum refunded to him by way of cheapened labor.

But it was soon discovered that the great body of land in Australia, though not adapted to cultivation, was the finest in the world for pasturing cattle and sheep. We have mentioned the grief occasioned by the loss of a great part of the cattle, in 1788. Seven years afterward it was reported by the natives that cattle had been seen grazing on the plains in the interior; an expedition was sent to investigate the matter; and sixty animals were found feeding in a single herd, the produce of the lost beasts. This was the origin of the immense herds of cattle which now cover the Australian plains.

About the same time John M'Arthur, who had come out as an officer in the army, happened to observe that the hairy wool of a few Indian sheep which had been imported, became much finer among the rich pastures of the plains. He was a man of far-reaching views, great energy, and indomitable courage. The discovery did not lie idle, and he devoted himself, in the midst of the ridicule of the colony, to improving the breed of sheep. At this time the exportation of merinos from Spain was strictly forbidden, and severely punished; but in 1803 M'Arthur visited England and succeeded in obtaining a few pure merinos from the flock of George III. From these have sprung those countless flocks of sheep which in less than half a century have made Australia the greatest wool-growing country in the world.

The introduction of flocks and herds was destined to effect a great change in Australian society. The saying of one of the early governors, that there were only two classes of inhabitants in Australia—convicts, and those who ought to have been convicted—had ceased to be true. The number of free emigrants greatly exceeded that of the convicts; and of the “emancipists” not a few retrieved their characters in the new circumstances in which they were placed.

The British Government, with its usual wrong-headedness, set itself seriously to work to neutralize the blessings which nature, ever bountiful, was so freely proffering to the superabundant agricultural population of the mother country. The price which had been fixed upon land, was of course far beyond its value for pastoral purposes. But to reduce the price would put it in the power of large numbers of persons, with limited means to purchase. A most complicated system of leasing the grazing lands was then adopted, by which persons of considerable capital only could occupy the lands for pasturage. These pastoral occupants—in Australia called squatters—in

course of time became the leading interest in the colony; and gradually absorbed a great share of the labor, in the shape of shepherds and stockmen. In the eyes of the new aristocracy, the great end and aim of the Australian colonies was to produce cattle and sheep—the character of the men and women produced was of no importance. Their *beau idéal* of a laborer was an able-bodied, unmarried man, from an agricultural county, humble, ignorant, and strong, and the Colonial Office adapted their measures to supply just this class of emigrants. The consequence was that except the utterly destitute among the laboring classes, few went to Australia, and the better classes of emigrants made their way to America. Emigration by families, in particular, was strongly discouraged.

The consequence was what might have been anticipated. From the original constitution of the colony as a penal settlement, there was of course a large preponderance of males. The new emigration kept up this disproportion by bringing over only single men, and married couples without children. In the course of time a great demand sprung up for female servants; and this was sought to be met by sending over shiploads of young women, who were landed at Sydney, unprotected and without means of finding their way to those rural districts where their labor was required. Thus, by a complication of errors, Australian society was undergoing a twofold process of demoralization. In the rural districts the men were lapsing into barbarism from lack of female influence, and in the cities the female population were falling into ruin for want of protection.

Government, of course, had quite other things to attend to than to attempt to remedy a social evil like this. And it was reserved for a private individual, and that a woman, to develop a scheme of colonization adapted to Australia. We will therefore devote a few paragraphs to the career of this benefactor of this colony.

Sometime in the early years of the present century, the home of William Jones, a sturdy Northamptonshire yeoman, was gladdened by the birth of a daughter. The girl grew up tall and vigorous, with that fine physical development in which our American women are so deficient—a sound mind in a sound body. At the age of twenty she was married to Alexander Chisholm, an officer in the East Indian army, whom two years after she accompanied to India. Here her sympathies were aroused by the condition of the daughters of the soldiers, exposed to the twofold pollutions of the barracks and of heathendom. Feeling with her was the parent of action, and she proceeded to establish and superintend a school of industry for their benefit, which has grown up into an extensive orphan institution, though her own labors were transferred to a wider sphere.

In 1838 the health of her husband became impaired, and he was advised to visit the more genial climate of Australia, with his wife and young children. The colony was now passing into the second stage of its development, and from a penal settlement becoming a colony of freemen. The attention of Mrs. Chisholm was soon directed to the unhappy condition of the young women whom Government had sent out as emigrants; who in a strange country, ignorant and unprotected, were exposed to the most deadly perils. But the little she could personally do for their benefit only showed her how much remained to be done. What could she do—a woman and a stranger? Yet the work was forced upon her by influences from without and impulses from within. “When I heard,” she writes, “of a poor girl



suffering distress, and losing her reputation in consequence, I felt that I was not clear of her sin, for I did not do all I could to prevent it."

Now came the solemn season of Lent, when the Romish church, of which she is a member, so affectingly commemorates the voluntary humiliation of "him who though he was rich, yet for our sakes became poor;" and the associations of the season pressed her task upon her mind. At length came Easter Sunday, when her church celebrates the finished work of redemption; and upon that day she writes, "I was enabled upon the altar of our Lord to make an offering of my talents to the Lord who gave them. I promised to know neither country nor creed, but to try to serve all justly and impartially. I asked only to be enabled to keep these poor girls from being tempted by their need to mortal sin: and resolved that, to accomplish this, I would in every way sacrifice my feelings—surrender all comfort, and wholly devote myself to the work I had in hand."

For all the encouragement she at first received, she might as well have been a prophet in the old Hebrew times. But though wearied she was not disheartened. The coöperation of Government seemed essential to any effectual result. Sir George Gipps, the Governor, was an obstinate, self-conceited, haughty man; yet not without certain personal good qualities: the very counterpart of those colonial governors who drove our fathers to insurrection. At last, after repeated and urgent solicitations he was induced to grant an interview to Mrs. Chisholm. "I had expected," he afterward said, "to have seen an old lady in white cap and spectacles, who would have talked to me about my soul. I was amazed when my aid introduced a handsome stately young woman, who proceeded to reason the question, as if she thought her reason and experience worth as much as mine." The Governor was slow to be convinced even by the arguments of a "handsome stately young woman;" but upon receiving a guaranty that Government should be put to no expense, he granted her the occupancy of a little wooden building, used as a government storehouse. She soon found that to exercise any adequate superintendence over the charge which surrounded her, she must herself occupy the premises. Her husband had been meanwhile recalled to India, but had feared to take with him his young family; and she took possession of a vacant room, seven feet square, infested with rats. Sickness among the emigrants compelled her to send her own three children away; but she courageously kept her post.

It was no part of Mrs. Chisholm's plan to found an alms-house. When she opened her "Home of Protection" there were at Sydney 600 young women unprovided with work; while all through the colony there was the most urgent demand for their labor; but those who wished to work, and those who desired their labor were at a distance from each other. Her purpose was simply to make herself acquainted with both parties, and to bring them together. Having, by means of circulars, ascertained the locations where labor was wanted, she undertook to convoy parties to these places. Her plan succeeded. Journey after journey added to her means of information. The settlers in "the Bush" came to her assistance, and supplied sustenance and transport for her parties. The public inns refused pay for shelter for her chargers and food for herself; so that her personal expenses during her journeys, for seven years, were actually less than ten dollars.

It was not long before she saw that it was not necessary to confine her services to female emigrants. Fathers, husbands, sons and brothers asked

to be allowed to accompany her parties; and thus her journeys became longer, and her parties larger, until on one occasion a company of 240 persons were under her charge, "bushing it," some on foot, some in drays, she herself leading the way on horseback, acting as guide, purveyor, and director. One of these expeditions occupied five weeks, of which three weeks were spent in "the Bush."

Emigrants often arrived ignorant of the manners and customs of the colony, liable to imposition from their own ignorance or the trickery of employers. For their benefit she opened a registry-office for servants and laborers, with a printed form, specifying all the essential points of agreement, to be signed in duplicate by each party. Employers were frequently unwilling to advance the sums necessary to transport the emigrants to their fields of labor. In hundreds of cases, Mrs. Chisholm advanced the needed sums, sometimes amounting to £40 for a single party; and all that she ever lost by this means was £16. During the seven years she spent in the colony she was thus the means of settling 11,000 individuals.

A scheme of colonization gradually grew up in the mind of Mrs. Chisholm, based upon a keen insight into human nature, and a thorough knowledge of the wants of the colonies. All experience has shown that it is not good for man, or woman either, to be alone; and that a virtuous society can be reared only upon the basis of the family state. Her published reports contain many instances, half-sad, half-ludicrous, of the anxiety of the better part of the settlers for virtuous wives, and of the impossibility of their obtaining them. The anxious question of the stockman, "When they were to have a Governor who would attend to matters of importance like that?" embodied more wisdom than the Colonial Office was aware of. Something else is requisite for a flourishing state than fat cattle and fine woolled sheep. With practical good sense Mrs. Chisholm thus hits the nail on the head: "To supply flockmasters with good shepherds is a good work; to supply those shepherds with good wives is a better. To give the shepherd a good wife is to make a gloomy, miserable hut a cheerful, contented home. To introduce married females into the interior is to make the squatters' stations fit abodes for Christian men. . . . All the clergy you can dispatch, all the schoolmasters you can appoint, all the churches you can build, and all the books you can export, will never do much good, without 'God's police' — wives and little children." But seeing all this, she also saw that sending out female emigrants, as Government had done, like so much merchandize to supply the matrimonial market, would not remedy the evil. The only feasible means of removing the disparity between the sexes, was to send out emigrants in families. To organize a scheme of family emigration, Mrs. Chisholm, accompanied by her husband, who had now rejoined her, and family, left Australia for England, in 1846, bearing with her the warmest good-will of colonists of every class.

Immediately upon her arrival in England, she set herself resolutely to her task. The modest house which her circumstances allowed her to select for a home was crowded by those seeking for information on the subject of emigration. Government even so far relaxed from its official dignity as to ask information and advice from her. In the course of a year or two she had organized her plan, and had enlisted powerful support in its favor. This plan was to establish a Family Colonization Loan Society, the object of which was to assist families of good character to emigrate. If necessary,



the Society undertook to advance a certain portion of the requisite expense of passage; but the main assistance rendered was that more needed than money, advice as what to do and how to do it. The Society undertook to charter ships, see to it that the accommodations and supplies were of a proper character, and that the emigrants should be so brought together in groups, before setting out, that they might render each other mutual aid and assistance. This scheme was brought forward in May, 1850. In September of that year the first ship was dispatched by the Society, which has since been followed by four others, conveying more than a thousand emigrants. Besides superintending all these outfits, Mrs. Chisholm has corresponded with and advised more than twenty thousand persons upon the subject of emigration. Her husband has recently taken passage from Australia, to open an office for the advice of emigrants upon their arrival, where they can at once receive information as to the most advisable places of location, and thus not be left to wander aimless and hopeless in the streets of the sea-port where they first land. To this woman, then, belongs the merit of having developed the only means by which the superfluous mass of human life, which is now heaped up and stagnates upon a narrow rim of overcrowded Europe, may be spread abroad, blest and blessing, over the broad uninhabited regions crying out for human inhabitants; fields which no plow has furrowed, so wide that their gleanings would feed the pent-up starving millions of Europe.

Poets have contrived to throw a coloring of romance over the most prosaic and monotonous mode of human life. Sentimental readers of Virgil and Florian picture a shepherd as a rosy-cheeked youth reclining upon a bank of flowers under a shady tree, with nothing to do but to watch his fleecy flock and make music on the oaten pipe. Pastoral life is anything but romantic in Australia. Any man can be a shepherd who has a tolerable pair of eyes; a wooden leg is no special objection, provided the owner can stump along at the rate of about a mile an hour. Hence it is a ready resource, everything else failing, of all those who prefer working to stealing or starving. The future shepherd takes service with some of the great squatting aristocracy—the grazing grandees—the magnates of the bush—who count their flocks by tens of thousands, and their pasture-lands, leased of the Crown, by scores of thousands of acres. He is then dispatched on foot to the “station” in the Bush, a distance of probably two or three hundred miles. If he have a wife and children—a consummation most devotedly to be wished—they are sent on by a bullock-dray. The “station” consists of a hut designed for two shepherds, and a hut-keeper, who takes charge of the hut, cooks for the shepherds, and watches the sheepfold by night. If one of the shepherds have a wife and children, they perform among them the duties of hut-keeper. Each of the shepherds has charge of a flock of sheep, which are driven in opposite directions by day, but at night are folded together close by the hut. The shepherd rises at break of day, makes his breakfast of mutton, unleavened bread baked in the ashes, known as “damper,” and tea made in “Bush fashion” by boiling the Chinese leaf in an open kettle with sugar and milk. Our Australian Corydon now takes his pipe—not the poetical instrument, so called, but a blackened *dudheen*, redolent of fragrant “negro-head” and “pig-tail,” and drives his flock a-field. But, alas for the dreams of flowery banks and cool shades, the best pastures only produce grass without flowers, and gum-trees which

cast no shade. The flock feed walking, and it is the shepherd's duty to keep with them, letting them go where they please, unless they approach too near the "scrub," when he must head them off. By the time the sun has reached mid-heaven, he turns them toward some creek or water-hole, where after they have drank they camp down in a ring, with their heads turned socially toward the centre. This is the time when an Arcadian shepherd would tune his pipes; his Australian brother, if of a musical turn, solaces the hour with a Jew's-harp, or an accordeon. These instruments accordingly figure largely in the list of imports, five hundred of the latter, and fifty gross of the former, being no extravagant venture by a single vessel; and a shepherd has been known to walk a couple of hundred miles to purchase one of these solacers of his weary hours. As evening approaches, he drives his flock homeward, shuts them in the fold, and delivers them to the charge of the hut-keeper. He then makes his supper of the unvarying mutton, and damper, and tea, and his day's work is done. If the night is clear as it usually is in Australia, the sheep need no watching till midnight, at which hour the watch takes his post near the fold. If the night is stormy it invites the attacks of the dingo, or native dog, and the watch must walk about his woolly charge. The wages of the shepherd, previous to the discovery of gold, were from 60 to 100 dollars a year, with abundant rations of meat, flour, tea, and sugar; what further luxuries he wishes, he provides for himself. If a man were an oyster, no pleasanter life could be asked. For months at a time he may not see a single human face by daylight; and by firelight only those of the companions of his hut. Even the busy times of shearing and washing do not disturb the monotony of his life; for these more active operations are usually performed by itinerant professors, who travel from station to station, busying themselves during the remainder of the year in other occupations. A strike among the tailors in London, some years since, and the consequent emigration of many of the craft, furnished Australia with a number of amateur shearers, who wielded the blades as deftly upon the fleece as they had been wont to do upon the web.

For the more stirring and adventurous spirits among the colonists, the care of cattle affords a more congenial occupation. The Australian "stockman" is a sort of Europeanized Tartar. He lives on horseback and scarcely enters a hut except to sleep. His food is beef and "damper;" his pride is his horse; he scorns those who plough and sow, and, above all things, despises a "crawling shepherd." As for the "crawlers" themselves, as he contemptuously denominates the sheep, he regards them as did that good old hater, John Randolph of Roanoke, who declared that he would go an indefinite distance out of his way to kick one. In his "run" the stockman is king: his cattle are his subjects; his saddle is his throne; his sceptre is the stock-whip. This is a thong of leather twelve or fourteen feet long, weighing a couple of pounds, thick at the "belly," and tapering to the end, where it is finished off with a silken cracker, and attached to a handle not more than eighteen inches long. Bearing this official sceptre, the stockman from his saddle-throne keeps watch over his pasture-ground. Woe to the unlucky beast who attempts to stray beyond the limits; the stockman is upon him at once, with his whip, each blow of which, from a practiced hand, cuts through hide and flesh to the very bone. Dexterity in the use of this weapon can be acquired only by long practice; and the



young stockman expectant devotes all his leisure to its acquirement, with the grave devotion and persistence of a juvenile practitioner on the violin or French horn; and makes quite as much noise in attaining a respectable proficiency. At noon, the herds are assembled at the "camping-ground," close by a water-course, if possible, where they lie chewing the cud. It takes a year or two to teach a new herd to betake themselves to the spot at the proper hour. The stockman trains them to this by riding about and flogging every beast found straying at camp-hours. In the course of time the whole herd get so trained that at the cracking of the whip, which rings like a musket-shot, they gallop spontaneously to camp. The life of the stockman has at times the excitement of a bull-fight. Once a year the cattle are mustered for inspection and branding, and a maddened bull not unfrequently breaks away from the yard and heads back for the bush; a stockman gallops after him and cuts his flanks with the terrible whip; the beast turns when his pursuer is close beside him, and, unless both horse and rider are wary, the steed is impaled on the horns of the infuriated bull. But, sooner or later, the bullock is subdued, and makes his way back to the yard, his hide covered with mingled blood and foam, his eyes glaring, and tongue protruding with agony and fear.

The bullock-driver is a sort of necessary mediator between the city and the pastoral regions. He conducts the enormous carts, with their loads of wool, to market, and brings back the annual returns of stores, and articles of luxury and necessity. His slow journey sometimes occupies two or three months, up the steep mountain side, over apparently impracticable roads, through heat and dust, rain and snow. During the whole time he does not probably once enter a human dwelling, sleeping in his vehicle, while his dog keeps charge over his bullocks turned out to gather their food. The setting out and return of the dray are the great annual events in the lives of the settlers in the Bush, for they are almost the sole links which bind the solitary inhabitants to the great world beyond.

Those portions of Australia which have been settled by emigrants from Great Britain are comprised in three principal colonies. The statistics given are from the census of March, 1851, the last which has been taken. The total population at that time, it will be seen, amounted to 322,000. The discovery of gold has given a great impulse to emigration, so that the population at present probably numbers 450,000. We have tables in detail respecting the population of only New South Wales, where the adult males amount to 60,500, while the adult females number only 33,700; the adult males numbering almost twice as many as the females. The proportion in the other colonies is probably about the same. The colonies are:

I. *New South Wales*, situated upon the eastern shore. Founded in 1787, as a penal settlement. Population, 187,000; sheep, 7,026,000; cattle, 1,360,000; horses, 111,200; exports, £1,990,900; imports, £1,670,300. Sydney, the capital, has 60,000 inhabitants.

II. *Victoria*, situated at the south-eastern angle of the island. First settled in 1835; cut off from New South Wales and erected into a separate colony in 1841. Population, 78,000; sheep, 6,033,000; cattle, 346,500; horses, 16,743; exports, £1,041,796; imports, £744,295. The capital is Melbourne, having a population of 25,000. This has been by far the most flourishing of the Australian colonies; and the richest deposits of gold have also been discovered here.

III. *South Australia*, lying on the southern shore of the island, immediately west of Victoria. Founded in 1835. Population, 67,000; sheep, 1,200,000; cattle, 100,000; horses, 6,000; exports, £571,000; imports, £887,000. Adelaide, the capital, contains 14,000 inhabitants. This is less a pastoral colony than either of the others, the principal article of export being copper. It has suffered very severely from speculations in copper mines, and on the whole, has not been successful. The discoveries of gold in the neighboring colony of Victoria, have likewise proved injurious to South Australia, drawing away a considerable share of its population. It is not known that any gold has been discovered in this colony.

In addition to these colonies, an attempt was made in 1829 to found the colony of Western Australia or Swan River, on the western shore. There are said to be some ten thousand inhabitants in this unfortunate district. The name of Northern Australia has been vaguely bestowed upon the whole central and northern parts of the island; but no permanent settlements have as yet been formed there.

Long ago—so long that we have no numerals to express either the date or the duration of the period—the layers which compose the superficial shell of our earth were slowly deposited around a still older rocky nucleus. This was the period of these shell-fish, and lizards, and huge monsters whose fossilized remains are disinterred by geologists, deposited in museums, and labeled with names as long and uncouth as themselves. Generation after generation, species after species, of these animals lived and died, and were buried, and the rock deposited from the surrounding waters was formed around their remains. At length the inner core, which lay below all organized life, and whose structure at once suggests the idea that it was formed in fire, was thrust up, by some force, the present existence of which is hinted to us by volcanoes and earthquakes. Through and among the aqueous rocks the fiery intruders made their way, overturning and displacing the quiet strata above, filling them with cracks and fissures, and in some cases giving them a semi-igneous character. Into many of these fissures the molten rock found its way, forming, when cooled, veins and dykes running in every direction.

The most frequent of these intruding rocks was quartz, either alone, or in connection with other kindred rocks. It is almost exclusively in the quartz veins thus forced up among the more ancient species of the aqueous rocks, that gold is found; not that it is always found there, but it is rarely found any where else. How the gold made its way there geologists no more know than thick-lipped and thick-headed King George knew how the apple got inside the dumpling; but there it is, sometimes in lumps and veins, sometimes in flakes and spangles, and sometimes scattered through the whole mass of quartz in grains so minute as to be invisible to the naked eye. In the course of ages this aqueous shell, with the intruding gold-bearing quartz, was again and again sunk beneath the sea, and elevated above it. Thus every portion of the earth's surface has been exposed to the action of tides and currents and waves, similar to those which now waste away our sea-shores. The waters wore away and broke off portions of these rocks, pounded them into boulders and pebbles, crushed them into gravel and sand, ground them into mud and clay, and spread the fragments out in broad alluvial tracts, deposited them in narrow patches, or heaped them up in hollows and depressions. The various substances swept along



by these currents would be gradually dropped, according to their size and specific gravity—the larger and heavier portions first reaching the bottom. If these currents acted upon gold-bearing quartz, the portions of precious metal, being some seven times heavier than its stony matrix, would be deposited sooner than fragments of quartz of similar size and shape. But larger fragments of stone and smaller ones of gold would be deposited together; while the finer portions of the stone would be borne farther than any part of the metal. But though gold and quartz were deposited together, the agitation of the current would in course of time sink the heavy metal to the bottom of the boulders and pebbles, till it rested upon a solid bottom of rock or clay; and if the bottom were tolerably soft clay it would even become imbedded for a short distance in that. In case there were any cracks or crannies in this bottom, they would become filled with the metal, forming what miners call “pockets.” So too in case the bottom was crossed by a bar or obstruction of any kind, as was frequently the case, the gold as it was swept along would be arrested and accumulated upon the upper side of the bar. Wherever, in short, the current was in any way obstructed, the deposition would be more rapid. In all these cases the heavy gold would slowly but surely make its way through the lighter matter deposited with it, till it rested upon a solid bottom.

But though gold is usually found in the beds of rivers, we must not infer that it is our present rivers whose waters have broken down and swept away the stony matrix, liberated the gold, and sorted and sifted it for the digger. Our rivers have flowed but a few years, geologically speaking; but they would naturally for the most part follow the channels worn through countless ages by the ante-diluvian and pre-Adamic currents. It sometimes happens that the ancient channel of a river has become filled up and obstructed, so that it has taken another course. If the old channel passed through a vein of auriferous quartz, the gold would be deposited in the old bed, and buried beneath the matter which choked it up. These deposits in ancient water-courses, now dry, are what are known as the “dry diggings,” while those in the bed of a running stream are the “wet diggings.”

The nature and composition of a gold-field result from the manner of its formation. The larger lumps of gold, which the current can carry but a short distance, are first deposited. In Australia these are called “nuggets,” and are usually found near or upon the surface of the ground; for the lighter materials have been swept further onward. These nuggets occur in masses from the weight of a few grains up to that of the “great lump,” the largest ever discovered, which weighed more than a hundred pounds. Further down the stream are deposited the smaller flakes and grains of gold, together with boulders and pebbles; still further down are borne the fine dust and invisible particles. Nuggets are thus found sparingly, and only in the close vicinity of the original spot where they originated. As a general rule, the less rapid the current, the smaller the particles deposited, and the more evenly are they distributed.

Almost all the gold in circulation has been obtained by washing these alluvial sands. Nature has here done all the crushing and grinding, and a great portion of the washing and sifting; and to complete the work, the gold-digger merely imitates on a small scale the processes which Nature has been carrying on for leagues and ages. The processes are too simple and too well-known by this time to demand more than a passing notice; and

they are now adverted to merely to point out their analogy with those employed by Nature. The cradle—very similar to the nursery article of the same name—is but a contrivance to produce an artificial current of water; the cleets across its bottom answer to the bars and obstructions in the bed of the river, which catch the gold drifting down. The river, in fact, is but a gigantic cradle, or the cradle but a miniature river; while the washing-bowl is neither more or less than an artificial “pocket,” from which all but the gold has been swept away. So well has Nature performed these preliminary operations that, except in the rarest instances, gold-mining can never become profitable until after the washings have been exhausted—which is not likely to happen in our day. For—to say nothing of the fact that the auriferous sands must be richer than the rock from which they are derived, because a greater proportion of the rock than of the gold has been washed away—the action of the rollers and the stamping-mill pulverizes the gold as well as the quartz, and leaves it in such a form that it can be separated only by complicated and expensive chemical processes, instead of the cheap and simple operation of washing.

It was not from lack of abundant indications of their existence that the golden treasures of Australia remained so long unknown, and that the shepherds and stockmen and bush-rangers were ignorant of the wealth which lay beneath their feet. A quarter of a century ago a convict was found in possession of a “nugget” of gold, which he professed to have found in the neighborhood where gold has since been discovered. His story was disbelieved, and he was soundly flogged, on suspicion of having obtained the gold by robbery, and of having melted it down in order to destroy the evidence of its identity. At occasional intervals gold was offered for sale to the jewelers of Sydney; and one old “emancipist,” named M’Gregor, gained some notoriety as a gold-finder; though it was shrewdly suspected that the real source of his findings was the pockets of unwary travelers. The old clansman’s prospecting, however, does not seem to have been over-successful, since at the outbreak of the gold-fever he was confined in Sydney for debt. A party of speculative miners paid his debts on condition that he should give them the sole benefit of his gold-hunting experience. But it is ill bargaining with rogues: M’Gregor took the earliest opportunity of cutting loose from his benefactors, and picking up a companion more to his liking, made his way to his old haunts, and “lay by” on his own account.

Science also pointed to the probability of the existence of gold in Australia. Humboldt had announced the *a priori* probability that mountains of the general geological character of the Australian Cordilleras, especially if running north and south, would be found to be auriferous. In 1841, and subsequently, Mr. Clarke, a colonial geologist, affirmed that gold “in considerable quantities” existed in certain Australian rocks. In 1844, and afterward, Sir Roderick Murchison, the eminent English geologist, expressed the same opinion, which he based upon the resemblance between the Australian Cordilleras and the Ural Mountains. In 1848, he wrote to Earl Gray, the Colonial Minister, urging measures to facilitate the search for gold. But that wise functionary shook his head, and declined interfering, on the ground that “the agitation of the discovery of the precious metals would prove injurious to an agricultural and wool-growing community.”



In 1848, one Mr. Smith produced a piece of gold imbedded in quartz, which he stated that he had found, and offered to disclose the spot to Government for a reward of £800. But Sir Charles Fitzroy, the "sporting Governor," suspecting the lump to be a "plant" on the Dousterswivel plan, and that its true origin was California, refused to give the reward in advance; but promised that if the disclosure should prove valuable, the discoverer should be liberally rewarded. But Mr. Smith would no more trust the Government than the Government would trust him. And thus he lost the chance of immortalizing himself as "*the* Mr. Smith" who discovered the gold mines of Australia.

But the Hour and the Man were at hand. Among those persons whom the gold-fields of California had attracted from Sydney, was Edward Hargraves. Emigrants from the penal colony were not in the best odor in the new State; the severe code of Judge Lynch began to be applied to them, sometimes by way of precaution rather than of punishment, with very uncomfortable stringency; and hints which admitted of no misunderstanding were given, that their presence could very well be dispensed with. Mr. Hargraves seems to have been an honest and honorable man, and we are not informed whether or no the suspicious place from whence he came had anything to do with his want of success—for unsuccessful he was. He returned to Sydney with little gold, but with some valuable experience; and immediately began a series of explorations at home.

On the 3rd of April, 1851, he made a communication to Government, stating that, as the result of two months' search, he had discovered valuable deposits of gold, which he offered to make public for a consideration. To this offer an answer was returned similar to that given to the communication of Mr. Smith, three years before. Mr. Hargraves, wiser than that gentleman, accepted the proposition of Government, and proceeded to the places which he designated, in company with the Government geologist. The first place where search was made was at Summerhill Creek, near the town of Bathurst, on the western side of the mountains, 150 miles from Sydney, the very district where old McGregor professed to have found his nuggets.

Early in May the discovery began to be bruited abroad, and by the 19th of that month hundreds of persons were digging at Summerhill Creek, to which they gave the name of Ophir. Three days after this the Government issued a proclamation claiming as the property of the Crown all gold found in its natural place of deposit, whether on public or private lands; forbidding all persons to dig or search for gold on Crown lands, without previously procuring a license; and settling the amount of the "Royalty" to be paid by those obtaining gold on their own lands.

By the first of June the current had set strongly toward the gold diggings. Sydney assumed a new aspect. Blue and red woolen shirts and California hats became the show-goods in the fashionable streets; from the stock of cradles displayed for sale, a stranger would gain an alarming impression as to the sudden increase of the infantile population of the colony. Water-proof tents, quicksilver for amalgamating gold soil, preserved provisions, spring-carts for the diggings, cradles and prospecting-pans, became the leading features of newspaper advertisements. The booksellers found their trade limited to "Digger's Hand-books" and "Gold-digger's Guides." Conversation took a golden turn; "Have you been to the diggings?"—

"Are you going?"—"Have your servants gone yet?" were the standing questions. The sudden intrusion of gold disturbed society as much as the obtrusion of the igneous gold-bearing quartz had long ago disturbed the quiet aqueous rocks. The man inured to toil, for a time at least, was the equal of any one. Tradesmen, mechanics, and servants, who a week before had stood cap in hand before their employers and masters, now "flashed their independence" in their faces. Every body who could go to the mines prepared to do so. The rugged defiles of the Blue Mountains were crowded with drays and ox-carts, piled with stores and mining utensils, and escorted by long lines of travelers on horseback or afoot, all in search of the new Ophir.

It was soon discovered that gold-mining was no child's play. The work was of the hardest a man can perform, the fare of the roughest, and the company with whom the miner found himself none of the most select. To dwell in tents was hardly as poetic as it had seemed when contemplated at a distance. Nuggets were like "angels' visits, few and far between." Rocking the cradle was quite a different thing from the same interesting performance at home. To breakfast at daybreak in a tent or gunyah, crowded with a mass of unwashed human beings in calico shirts, then work till mid-day in the water, snatch at noon a hasty meal of mutton, damper, and Bush tea, without even stopping for ablution, and back to the mines till dark, was something that many had not bargained for. Besides, fortunes were not to be made in a day. Of the thousands at the mines, the Government Commissioner reported that about two-fifths were making five dollars a day; about the same proportion gained from fifty cents to a dollar and a half; and the remainder earned nothing. By the first of July—the Australian mid-winter—a reaction had taken place. The weather grew cold and stormy; the river was flooded so that no work could be carried on at the "wet diggings," and the miners were reduced to the alternative of lying idle, or going prospecting in search of "dry diggings," carrying their implements and stores as best they might. Many sold their implements and stores for a trifle, and made their way homeward, pursued by the jeers of the passers-by, and met everywhere by the taunting question, "Have you sold your cradle?"

Just at this time was found the famous "Hundred-pound Lump," whose history would furnish materials for a romance. A native in the service of a certain Dr. Kerr, was lounging along, hatchet in hand, through a sheep-run where he had walked a hundred times before. His eyes caught something yellow upon the surface of a block of quartz; and a blow with his hatchet revealed a mass of gold. He hastened back to his master, who took horse and rode to the spot. The largest block weighed 75 pounds, and by its side were two fragments, each of about half the weight, which had apparently originally formed part of it. Like the man who drew an elephant in a lottery, the doctor was at a loss how to dispose of his prize. At last he concluded to break it up, put it in a pair of saddle-bags, and convey it home on horseback, a ride of many hours. As he was compelled to halt at some human habitation for refreshment, he would lift the saddle-bags, with forced indifference, and fling them carelessly over a rail-fence. "It seems heavy?" some suspicious-looking bystander—perhaps stockman, perhaps bushranger—would remark interrogatively. "Oh yes," the doctor would answer, endeavoring to allay suspicion by an apparent jest, "full



of gold, of course!" When the gigantic nuggets came to be weighed, they were found to contain a little more than a hundred pounds of pure gold, worth, as metal, more than twenty thousand dollars. But now the thought flashed upon the doctor that, had it remained unbroken, it would have been worth much more as a specimen; what a fortune might have been made by exhibiting it; and the poor practitioner began to look upon himself, and to be looked upon by his neighbors, not as the lucky man who had made twenty thousand dollars by a single day's ride, but as the unfortunate individual who had lost ten times as much by a few blows of a hatchet. But the misfortunes of the lump did not end here. The merchant who bought it had taken his passage with it from Bathurst to Sydney, when he was stopped by an officer of Government who claimed the prize as the property of the Crown—the doctor had not taken out a license to search for gold. The astounded merchant refused to stand and deliver, but it was of no avail; the officer took possession of the prize. Arriving at Sydney it was restored to the poor merchant on condition of his paying a "Royalty" of ten per cent., and an additional per centage for its safe conduct by Government from Bathurst. To avoid all further chance of accidents, it was shipped by its harrassed owner for England on the very day of its arrival in Sydney, with strict orders that it should be consigned to the melting pot immediately on its arrival in England; in order that its identity might be destroyed. And so "*Hie hat de Mahr' ein Ende, das ist der Nibelungen Lied*"—here ends the story of the Australian Nibelungen Treasure.

The discoveries of gold in New South Wales were soon thrown into the shade by still more astounding discoveries in the Colony of Victoria, made about six weeks later. We have before us a print of the curious volcanic hill of Buninyong some fifty miles from Melbourne, as it appeared in 1850. A fine sweep of pastoral landscape, shaded here and there by a solitary gum tree occupies the foreground. Over this a flock of sheep are wandering under the care of a solitary shepherd—sheep and shepherd alike unconscious that they were walking over a golden pavement. In the background the volcanic hill of Buninyong rears its conical head in the distance. Here were the famous diggings of Ballarat—famous for a few weeks, that is, till they were eclipsed by the still more famous ones of Mount Alexander. The deposits here were of richness unexampled. The Governor of the Colony once saw eight pounds' weight—two thousand dollars' worth—washed from a couple of pans-full of clay. In a fortnight after the discovery of the Ballarat diggings Melbourne was deserted. The Mechanic left his work-bench, the carman his team, the servant his knives and forks, for the diggings. The tradesmen and merchants were forced to follow—for what was the use of their staying when their customers were gone? What an overturn there was! How gold levels distinctions! A flannel shirt, California hat, and unshorn chin became emblems of nobility, and took the front rank every where. A sad case was it for poor helpless mortals who had been accustomed to be waited upon. Governor and Bishop presented a sorry spectacle—the former must groom his own horse, and the latter must black his own shoes. The gouty Judge could get to Court only by being wheeled by his own sons—let us hope that these modern Biton and Cleobis will not fail to get their reward. "My good fellow," said a spruce new-comer to a rough looking fellow, "carry this bag and you shall have a shilling." The other coolly transferred a quid of tobacco

from one cheek to the other, as he placed a cow-hide-shod foot upon a convenient stone, with the words, "Here, my fine lad, tie my shoe, and here's a half crown for you." And so on, *ad infinitum*. Twenty thousand—thirty thousand—forty thousand diggers were vibrating from Ballarat to Mount Alexander, from Mount Alexander to Bendigo Creek, from Bendigo Creek to Fryar's Creek. All had heard of extraordinary yields—of gold by the pound, of nuggets by the quart, but when the first excitement was over it was seen that few had met with any such luck. One by one the disappointed diggers slunk back to their former posts. The Governor's horse rejoiced in the care of his old groom. The Bishop grew fat and rosy in the performance of his spiritual functions; his ancient groom blacked his shoes once more—for a reasonable advance on his old wages. The dutiful sons of the Judge were released from the task of wheeling that gouty minister of the law; and at the latest dates society had fallen back much into its ancient routine.

Yet not wholly. Taking one with another, fifty thousand diggers were earning each at the rate of a thousand dollars a year; mechanics commanded two or three dollars a day; and shepherds who were leaving the mines returned to their pastoral pursuits, their Jews-harps and accordeons, at a salary of one hundred and fifty or two hundred dollars, besides unlimited rations of mutton and damper. One year's experiment of the Australian gold mines has added to the stock of precious metals the amount of twenty millions of dollars; while for the latter portions of that time, which may be assumed to present a fair average of the yield for a year to come, the production has been at the rate of fifty millions of dollars a year. Divide this among fifty thousand miners, and make allowance for the increased expense and decreased comfort of living at the mines, and it will present the fair average of what one miner with another may hope to gain. The shrewd and forecasting Yankees, of whom some five thousand have gone there, will exceed the average, while some other classes of emigrants will fall as much below it.

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## MONASTERY OF MONREALE, IN SICILY.

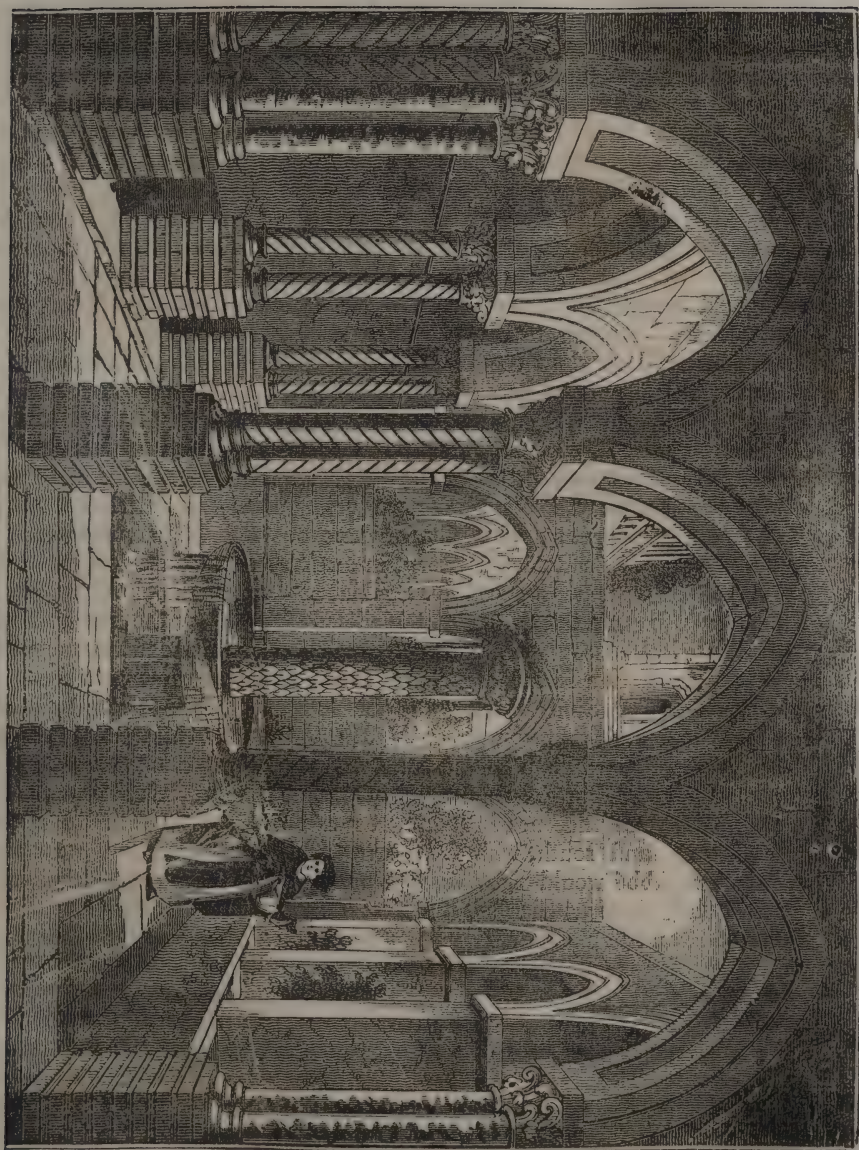
**T**HOUGH the town of Monreale is nearly four miles from Palermo, it is so connected with that capital by lines of houses and villas as to have almost the character of a suburb. It stands on a noble elevation at the southern extremity of the rich vale of Palermo. The road leading to it runs in a straight line from the Cassaro, or principal street of Palermo, to the very foot of the hills, over which it has been made to stride by a noble causeway. The situation, the views, are almost unrivalled; and the town itself, though it can hardly be called handsome, has an impressive, picturesque, half-oriental air about it, and contains a number of very remarkable edifices. The Carthaginian, the Grecian, the Roman, the Saracenic temples and villas that stood on the spot had been swept away, and the place was nearly deserted, when the Normans conquered the island, and devoted themselves to its embellishment with more ardor, and much



more taste, than might have been thought compatible with their warlike habits and the comparatively recent date of their own barbarism. As early as the eleventh century, and nearly at the time of the Norman conquest of England, Count Ruggiero, the first Norman King of Sicily, began the work of improvement, and laid the foundation of several towns and vast religious edifices; but it was in the twelfth century, and under his descendant William the Good, that Monreale was traced out, and its ancient cathedral, as well as its famous Benedictine abbey, was first built. The town, by the usual process in those ages, grew up round the abbey, and as the establishment increased in wealth and importance, the town also increased. Like all the Norman buildings of the period, the abbey is strictly and almost entirely characterized by the Moorish or Saracenic style. The cause of this was obvious: the Normans who invaded the island were no architects, and were not likely to carry builders of any kind with them; and in Sicily they found abundance of skillful Saracenic artists, and nothing but Saracenic models. They could hardly help being struck by the lightness and beauty of the workmanship, and the admirable manner in which the prevailing style of building adapted itself to a hot climate; and the obvious circumstances of convenience and facility of obtaining artists in that line would, even independent of any taste, induce them to perpetuate the architecture of the Moors.

The cloisters of Monreale are, from their magnificence, extent, and taste, considered the master-piece of the Saraceno-Norman architects, and, though the interval that divides them from the great master-piece of the Moors in Spain is a long one, they are frequently called the "Alhambra of Sicily." The successors of that most energetic soldier of fortune, Count Ruggiero, spared no pains and no money in decorating this favorite monument of their piety; the vast abbey-church, and nearly every part of the monastery are most elaborately finished. The twisted columns which support the arcades of the cloisters are covered nearly all over with mosaic; and though not large in the diameter of their shafts these columns are considerable in their number; for, taking in the whole range of the cloisters (of which but a section is shown in our engraving) there are 120 columns, and every one of these is exquisitely finished. Some of their capitals are very curious, being composed of the heads of animals, cut with great spirit. In each division of the cloisters there is a richly ornamented fountain, and as all these are constantly supplied with clear, sparkling, cool water, the effect during the summer heats is delicious. From the shaded porticoes, and the cool open galleries above them, the eyes of the monks rest upon their gardens and groves, abounding in odoriferous shrubs and plants, all kept fresh and doubly fragrant by water gushing forth on all sides, and leaping in marble basins. The wealth and power are departed; the glory of the house is gone; but as a delicious place of residence, the abbey of Monreale remains unrivaled.

After the cloisters, the most striking feature in this monastery is, perhaps, the vast and truly noble staircase, at the head of which there stand (or at least there stood a few years ago) two large and splendid paintings, one being by Velasquez, and the other by Pietro Novelli, a native of the town, and commonly called from it the "Monrealese," or, for greater euphony, "Morealese." His works abound in other parts of the edifice, which also contains many pieces of sculpture by Gagini, another native



SICILIAN MONASTERY.



artist. The adjoining cathedral church is in the same Saracenic style, but heavier and somewhat less symmetric than the Benedictine house. The general effect is, however, imposing, and this cluster of edifices is honorable to the taste and magnificence of the twelfth century. The interior of the cathedral is a complete crust of rich mosaic work. Some of the tombs have a high historical interest: here were interred, William the Good, its founder, William the Bad, and many princes of the Norman and Suabian lines, some of whom gave a noble encouragement to the then infant literature of Italy. In the year 1811 the cathedral was greatly damaged by a fire, and the government has not since shown any zeal in restoring this national monument. The authorities have removed a few of the more precious relics to Palermo, and thus, indeed, seem to have resigned themselves to the idea of the gradual decay and falling to pieces of the venerable edifice.

In its scenery and accessories the whole neighborhood of Monreale is magic ground. About three miles beyond the abbey is the magnificent monastery of San Martino, situated in a wild and solitary dell, among rocks and mountains. Here also are fine galleries and fountains, pictures and statues. Among many curiosities of a less questionable nature, the monks pretend to show the identical cup from which Socrates drank his poison. The library of San Martino attracted the attention of Europe last century by being the scene where the literary forgeries of the Abbate or Abbé Vella were discovered and brought to light. This ingenious Sicilian, or this "learned swindler," as he has been called, made himself master of various Arabic dialects by several years' study and traveling in the East; and on his return to Sicily he gave out that he had recovered the lost books of Livy's Roman History, in an Arabian manuscript, taken from the cornice of the mosque of St. Sophia, at Constantinople. Before the lively sensation created throughout civilized Europe by the report of this great historical discovery had time to cool, Vella pretended to find, in this very library of San Martino, a perfect Arabic manuscript, treating of the whole history of Sicily during the Saracen dominion. Arabic scholars were scarce, and money was not. The Abbé and his project became amazingly popular; he received large sums, and went to work with such vigor that he had soon no fewer than six volumes of translations in the press. For some time nothing else was talked of by the *savans* of east, west, north, and south, who fully expected that, pursuing his fortunate career, the Abbé would recover in similar guise the missing portions of Tacitus and Diodorus Siculus, the Register of Augustus, the Comedies of Menander, and in short every "lost Pleiad" of Grecian and Roman literature. At length many of the literati even braved Scylla and Charybdis, and went to Sicily for a sight of the inestimable manuscripts. We presume they were, for the most part, not very deep in Arabic; but at last, and in an evil moment for the Abbé, Doctor Hager, a German *doctissimus et eruditissimus*—a wight most profound in oriental languages and literature—pounced upon the manuscripts, and after some examination of the matter and manner, the style, and the dates, pronounced and proved the whole to be a gross forgery. The bubble burst at once; the books were stopped on the eve of publication, and thus perished one of the most successful attempts at literary imposition ever practised on the credulity of the learned.

## CARAVANSERAS.

**A**MONG a rude people whose country is rarely visited by strangers, any one who arrives is cheerfully received into the tent or hut of some principal man; and the best fare that the place can afford is set before him without charge. The rude or savage men sometimes even contend among themselves for the honor of entertaining the stranger. In a state of more advanced civilization and increased intercourse, so many sanctities come to be assembled around private life that the intrusion of a perfect stranger is felt unpleasant, and therefore a separate house is appropriated to the reception of travelers, where every attention is paid them, and they are amply supplied with provisions. In the next stage, hospitality provides only for the stranger what he cannot provide for himself—shelter; and, in the last stage of all, in which occasion for travel is diminished to the poor and increased to the rich, the traveler is altogether left to the care of persons who make it a profession to afford him every kind of accommodation. Some persons look upon the last state of things as illustrating

“The cold charities of man to man,”

in a highly civilized state of life. We, however, are quite satisfied that the actual amount of human sympathies is greatest in the state of society that is the most highly civilized; although sympathy and charity cannot always be exhibited in the same forms as in a ruder state of life, without disturbing the working of the delicate and complicated machinery in the midst of which the civilized man lives, and of which himself, his life, and his labors form a part. We proceed to describe the system of providing for travelers shelter, but no food, as exhibited in Persia.

The places of accommodation for travelers are properly three:—caravanseras, khans, and menzils. The first are buildings designed to afford shelter to travelers in deserts and other situations remote from towns; khans are similar buildings in a town; and menzil is a word of rather indefinite application, but seems generally to denote the house of the persons who are accustomed to accommodate travelers in places where there is no khan or caravansera. The difference between the two latter is not much attended to in common conversation; nevertheless, the terms are not so much confounded as might be supposed from the statement made by travelers,—that the public buildings devoted to their accommodation are usually called “khans” in Turkey and “caravanseras” in Persia. The reason is, that in Turkey there are, in fact, very few proper caravanseras,—that is, such buildings at a distance from towns—while they abound in Persia.

In that country there are few public buildings comparable to the caravanseras, for the mosques are in general buildings of no external beauty; while in Turkey, where the mosques are often handsome structures, the buildings destined to accommodate travelers are exceedingly mean. In our present article we confine ourselves exclusively to caravanseras.

In Persia they are all constructed on essentially the same model, but they nevertheless differ greatly; and this difference is found not only in the materials and workmanship of the building, but in the absence of different parts possessed by the complete caravanseras. Our best course will be,





PERSIA—CARAVANSERAS.

first, to describe a perfect structure, and then to mention what parts are sometimes omitted.

The superior class of caravanseras appear very striking objects to the stranger who approaches them, whether seen in their own solitary magnificence, or in contrast with the miserable hovels that sometimes appear in their neighborhood. An European who has had no previous acquaintance with them is certain to take them for palaces, fortresses, or castles; but this first impression becomes fainter when a more deliberate observation shows that no enclosed buildings rise above the level of the enclosing wall. This wall is very high, in general upwards of twenty feet; and it sometimes extends one hundred yards on each side of the square which it encloses. It is strongly built of fine brick-work, which is commonly based on stone, and is usually worked off at the upper part with ornamental brick-masonry. The front is often very striking, particularly when the uniformity of the wall is broken not only by the grand entrance, but by niches about four feet from the ground, which are seen in some of the best caravanseras. In the centre of the front wall appears the entrance, a tall and spacious archway, over which are sometimes chambers crowned with superb domes. Much pains has generally been taken with the open work and mosaic of this part of the structure, which altogether forms a very fine and suitable portico to the caravansera. On each side, under the extensively arched roof of the portico, are rooms which are usually occupied by the keeper and his people; and some of them are used as shops, in which are exposed for sale such commodities as travelers most require. On passing through this archway, the spectator perceives a sort of piazza extending on every side of the interior of the quadrangle, leaving a spacious area in the middle. On a nearer approach, it appears that each of the high arched recesses separated by piers is an apartment, the floor of which is elevated three or four feet above the ground, and divided from the adjoining apartments by walls, the ends of which form what appear like the piers of a piazza. These apartments, which are open in front, are neatly paved, and sometimes possess a fireplace, while compartments cut out in the depth of the thick wall are serviceable as cupboards. A small door conducts to another more private room behind this. It is commonly of an oblong shape, with the chimney on the side opposite the door, at which the only light enters that the room receives. Along the walls, about three feet from the floor, there runs a line of such "topshehs," or cupboards, as we have just mentioned, and which are considered indispensable in all Persian apartments, but vary in depth from three inches to a foot. The inner apartment is seldom resorted to, even for sleeping, except in winter or in bad weather, or by women, the outermost being considered the summer room, and an inhabitant of the East does not covet privacy for the purposes of sleep, eating, or devotion. In the middle of each of the three sides of the building, besides that in which is the entrance, or at least of the side immediately opposite the entrance, there is an apartment much more spacious and lofty than any other, in its actual structure, and appearing more so than it is, from not being divided into two rooms, as in the case of the common apartments. These large open chambers seem to have no specific use. They are sometimes occupied by families, and sometimes they are merely used as places to which the different inmates of the building resort to smoke their pipes together,—to converse, or listen to tales. They seem to have been framed



with the intention of rendering the other sides of the building uniform—in the interior view—with that which affords the entrance.

The vaulted chambers over the gateway, which are found in the oldest and best caravanseras, form the place of honor in such buildings. They are usually occupied by the persons of most note, particularly if females are with them: but it sometimes happens that this portion of the building is set apart for the purposes of an oratory. These chambers are more free from intrusion, more airy, light, and clean than the recesses below, which are not unfrequently rendered unpleasant by dirt and vermin.

The stables of the caravansera extend along a covered lane, which is between the back wall of the apartments and the outermost wall of the building; and along this wall there extends, within the stable, another series of cell-like apartments, destined for the accommodation of muleteers, servants, and the poor people who, having no servants to attend to their cattle, perform that duty for themselves. However, the Persians and their cattle appear to concur in giving a decided preference to the spacious central court-yard, which is therefore used as a stable when the weather is not unfavorable.

In the centre of the court appears an elevated platform of masonry, which forms the roof of a subterranean chamber called a "*zeera zemoun*," to which travelers retire during the great mid-day heats of summer, and which is then indeed a most refreshing retreat. Sometimes, however, the place of this platform is occupied by the circular or square parapet of the deep well or reservoir from which the caravansera is supplied with water, the only accommodation, besides lodging, which such establishments provide, and which is sometimes provided at a great expense in situations where water is difficult to procure.

At the angles of the square there are flights of steps which conduct to the flat roof of the building, to which travelers like to resort in the cool of the evening; and very generally indeed, unless they have any valuable property in the chambers below, they remove their beds to the roof, and spend the night there.

We are not aware that any part of a complete caravansera has escaped our notice, but must now state that such completeness is frequently wanting. Some caravanseras are destitute of the stables, and in others the apartments do not extend on all sides of the square. Many are without the domed chambers, or any chambers, over the gateway; many are without the "*zeera zemoun*," and in some the arcaded appearance of the interior is wanting;—a range of single chambers, such as the inner chambers in the complete building, being merely fronted by an unbroken bench of masonry or earth.

As these buildings afford no other accommodation than the bare walls, and it is sometimes impossible to obtain food at any price in the neighborhood, the eastern traveler is obliged to encumber himself with bedding, culinary utensils, and some articles of provisions. The writer has even known wood for fuel bought at one stage to be used at the two or three following, where it was well known that none could be obtained. For the accommodation actually afforded no price is properly payable; and although a small gratuity seems to be sometimes expected from the better sort of travelers, it is understood not to be for the accommodation, but for attentions and services rendered by the persons in charge of the building.

## ROBERT BRUCE.

**A** SHORT chronological detail of the course of events during the quarter of a century which preceded the appearance of Robert Bruce on the scene of Scottish history, will place in the clearest light what that great deliverer achieved for his country.

In 1282 Scotland was in the enjoyment of profound peace, and perhaps unprecedented prosperity, under the sway of Alexander III.—one of the ablest and best of her kings. Alexander had married Margaret, a daughter of King Henry III. of England, and was, consequently, the brother-in-law of the reigning king of that country, Edward I. The Scottish king was now in the forty-second year of his age, and having a son and a daughter arrived at maturity, had a fair prospect of leaving his sceptre to a line of descendants, after a reign which might yet have been extended to a distant date. This year his daughter Margaret was united in marriage to Eric, the young king of Norway, and soon after, his son, of the same name with himself, to Margaret, daughter of Guy, the head of the powerful house of Flanders.

A short space sufficed to turn to darkness all this appearance of a secure and happy future. The Queen of Norway had scarcely been married a year when she died, after having given birth to a daughter. The death of Prince Alexander, without issue, followed in January, 1284; and, finally, on the 16th of March, 1286, the king himself, having fallen over a rock at Kinghorn, in Fife, while riding at night, was killed on the spot.

Thus terminated the line of the original Celtic kings of Scotland. The sovereignty of that turbulent country now devolved upon the infant Norwegian princess, who of course was still at the court of her father. Had even she survived, the calamities that fell upon the kingdom might still have been averted. The crown had been solemnly secured to her by a declaration of the Estates of Scotland, which her grandfather had taken the precaution to obtain the year before his death; and, since that event, it had been arranged that, as soon as she was brought home, she should be affianced to her second cousin, the eldest son of the English king,—a project which, if it had been carried into effect, would have eventually united the two kingdoms under one sceptre. But this hope was also doomed to be disappointed. Margaret, the young Queen of Scotland,—known in Scottish history by the name of the Maid of Norway—having, in 1289, been placed by her father in the hands of ambassadors sent to conduct her to the country of which she was to wear the crown, was taken ill on the voyage, and having been carried on shore to one of the Orkney Islands, died there.

Now came the calamity of a disputed succession to the throne,—always one of the greatest that can befall a state, but in this case aggravated by the advantage taken of the crisis by the English monarch, to endeavor to make himself master, by fraud or force, of the distracted country. The contest which ensued lasted for more than twenty years; the barbarities of



war, in the constant alternation of conquest and insurrection, being only interrupted for short seasons by the gloomy tranquillity of enslavement and despair. Although many competitors started in the first instance, the only two that eventually prosecuted their claims were John Baliol, Lord of Galloway, and Robert Bruce, Lord of Annandale; the former the grandson of the eldest daughter, the latter the son of the second daughter, of David Earl of Huntingdon, in whose line the right to the crown now undoubtedly resided. On the 19th of November, 1292, the English king, to whom the decision had been referred, gave judgment in favor of Baliol. On the next day, the new King of Scotland did fealty to Edward as his feudal superior; and on the 30th he was crowned at Scone. For more than three years Baliol and his subjects remained apparently quiet under the yoke which had thus been imposed upon them; but in the spring of 1296, Edward having by this time become involved in a war with France, the Scots, seeing what they thought a favorable opportunity of regaining their freedom, also rose and took arms against him;—Baliol, driven into resistance by the many humiliations he had been made to suffer from his haughty liege lord, having been induced to place himself at the head of the insurrection. This effort, however, conducted with no ability, wholly failed; the generals of Edward carried every thing before them, and, after a few weeks, the conquest of the country was complete. As this was considered to be the suppression of a rebellion, the sword was allowed even more than its usual license, and the victor endeavored to strike terror into the hearts of the miserable people by massacres and devastations on a large scale. On the 2nd of July, Baliol formally surrendered the kingdom into the hands of Edward, who immediately appointed one of his generals to govern it as his deputy.

In less than two years, however, the Scots again revolted. Their leader now was the illustrious Wallace. Under his conduct they chased the English authorities from the kingdom—overthrew, at Cambus Kenneth, a force of 40,000 men that was dispatched to put down the insurrection—obtained possession of some of the principal fortresses—reestablished a native government—and were not again brought under the yoke till Edward himself came against them at the head of an army of 100,000 strong, and defeated the Scottish champion at the fatal battle of Falkirk, fought on the 22nd of July, 1298.

The spring of the year 1303 was signalized by another revolt, which lasted for nearly two years, and which in like manner was not decided till the English king had again taken the field in person. Its suppression was followed by new cruelties and devastations, and by the abandonment of the unhappy country to a tyranny more grinding than ever. Among other acts of vengeance, Edward stained his character with indelible infamy by the execution of the heroic Wallace, who had been betrayed into his hands. He suffered on Tower Hill, London, on the 23rd of August, 1305.

It was now that Bruce resolved to put himself at the head of his countrymen, and to call them up to yet another struggle for their liberties and independence. He was the grandson of Robert Bruce, the competitor for the crown with Baliol, and was at this time about thirty years of age. His father and grandfather having adhered to the English interests in the late contests, or having perhaps been forcibly detained by Edward under his own eye, he had till now resided at the English court. That his detention

here was compulsory appears to be proved by the stratagem to which he was obliged to resort in order to make his escape from London. He had already been concerting his plans with some connexions in Scotland, when a friend, having learned that he was watched, but not venturing to give him direct warning, sent him one day, by a servant, a pair of spurs and a purse of money. Penetrating the hint, Bruce lost not a moment. Having ordered three horses to be shod with the shoes turned backward, in order to perplex his pursuers, he set off, accompanied by two trusty servants, in the middle of the same night. When his flight was discovered, horsemen were ordered to scour the country in all directions—but he eluded or outrode them; and on the 10th of February, 1306, which was the seventh day after he set out from London, he made his appearance in the midst of his friends, at his castle in Lochmaben, in Dumfriesshire. From this he immediately proceeded to Dumfries, where, in an interview in the Dominican church with John, called the “Red Comyn,”—who, after having become a party to the enterprise, is supposed to have expressed an inclination to recede from his engagement—he, in the heat of the dispute which arose between them, slew that nobleman with his dagger at the altar. From the manner in which the news of this deed of blood and sacrilege was received by the Scots, there is reason to think that Comyn was generally believed to have been engaged in the interest of the English king when his career was thus suddenly cut short, and to have been preparing to betray his friends and his country.

Many of Bruce’s countrymen now gathered to their new leader, and having made his way to Scone without being opposed, he was crowned there on the 29th of March. A sudden reverse, however, was awaiting him. Edward now lost no time in collecting his strength, and a powerful force, under the command of Aymer de Valence, soon arrived in the neighborhood of the royal residence. An engagement took place on the 19th of June, at Methuen, near Perth, and ended in the total defeat and rout of the Scots. Several of Bruce’s most distinguished adherents were here taken prisoners, and afterwards executed as rebels and traitors.

He himself was compelled to seek safety by flight. Having placed his wife, his two sisters, and his youngest brother Nigel in the castle of Kildrummie, in Aberdeenshire, where they soon after fell into the hands of the ruthless Edward, he himself retreated to the wilds of Breadalbane. “He was left,” says Hollinshed, translating from the old Scottish chroniclers, “so desolate and unprovided of all friendship, that he was constrained for his refuge to withdraw into the woods, and mountains, with a few other in his company, and there lived on herbs and roots oftentimes for want of other food.” “Yet,” continues the narrative, “though he was thus left desolate of all aid and succor, having his brethren and other of his friends murdered and slain, to his utter discomfort and ruin, as was then supposed, he nevertheless lived ever in hope of some better fortune, whereby in time to come he might recover the realm out of the enemy’s hands, and restore the ancient liberty thereof to the former estate. As for the pains which he took in living barely for the most part by water and roots, and lodging oft-times on the bare earth without house or other harborough, he was so accustomed thereto by haunting the wars in his youth that the same grieved him little or nothing at all. But to conclude: such was his valiancy and most excellent fortitude of mind and courage, that no injurious mischance



or froward adversity could abash his invincible heart and warlike stomach." He afterwards found it necessary to cross over from the mainland to one of the Hebrides, and eventually he took refuge in the small island of Rach-erin or Rach-rine, lying opposite to Ballycastle, on the coast of Ireland. From this he passed to the Isle of Arran; and, by the spring of 1307, he was again at the head of a considerable force in Ayrshire, and openly preparing to regain his crown. Edward now determined to march against him in person; and, having collected another great army, had advanced nearly to the Border at its head. But heaven averted from the land which had been already swept by so many similar visitations this new storm. The English king was suddenly taken ill at Carlisle, and died there on the 7th of July. This event broke up the expedition. Bruce was now left free to pursue his enterprise; assisted by his younger brother Edward and other gallant associates, he assailed and reduced one after another nearly all the strongholds in which English garrisons had been placed; and, in no long space, almost the whole of Scotland was once more his own.

Taking advantage of the indolent character of the new king of England, he even made various successful inroads into that country, and avenged by the plunder of his enemy a small part of what his subjects had again and again suffered in this protracted contest. In this state, things continued for some years, without any serious attempt being made by Edward to recover his father's conquests. At last, however, in the spring of 1314, the troubles in which the commencement of the reign of that king was involved having been somewhat composed, he determined to make a grand effort to crush the rebellion for ever; and, collecting the mightiest host which England had ever yet sent forth, he marched with it into the heart of Scotland. Every reader is aware of the issue, so glorious to Bruce and to the Scottish arms. The ever-memorable battle of Bannockburn, fought on the 25th of June, scattered Edward's proud armament like chaff before the wind, struck from Scotland the last link of her chain of bondage, relieved her from the curse of war for many years, and left the great hero of the day on the throne which so long as he lived was never again either shaken or assailed.

His reign did not close till the year 1329, when a disease, under which he had suffered during a great part of his life, at last brought him to his grave. This admirable king did not lose in peace the renown which he had gained in war; but, on the contrary, by the wisdom of his civil government, greatly heightened the fame which he had acquired over all Europe, as well as the love and honor in which he was held by his subjects at home. He was regarded in that age as in all things the model of a perfect knight; and one name only, that of the Emperor Henry of Luxembourg, was placed in the popular estimation before that of Bruce. It is related that upon one occasion, in the presence of Edward II., an English herald ventured even to defend the claim of the Scottish king to take precedence of the Emperor; "for the valiant acts," said he, "achieved by Henry may be ascribed rather to the wisdom of his counsellors than to his own valiantness and prudence; but contrarily, King Robert, being confined out of his country, and destitute of friends and all convenient aid, recovered the realm of Scotland, by his singular manhood, out of the hands of your noble father, and established it with such tranquillity, that he appeared more terrible to his enemies of England than ever they had been afore to his subjects of

of Scotland." His history, as related in detail by the old chroniclers, abounds in instances of the lofty generosity of his nature, and the clemency and kindness which ever tempered and graced his valor. "The commendations of which King Robert," says Francis Boteuile, in his *Additions to Holinshed*, "Buchanan setteth forth (to comprehend many things in few words) to be, that he was every way a most worthy person, and that there were few to be found, from the former heroical days, equal unto him in all kinds of virtue; for as he was in battle most valiant, so was he in peace most temperate and just. And though his undivided good success and perpetual course of victories (after that fortune was once satisfied or rather wearied with his misfortunes) were very great, yet he seemeth to Buchanan to be far more wonderful in his adverse fortune; whose valor of mind was such that it could not be broken, no, not so much as weakened, by so many evils as happened unto him at one time; whose singular constancy appeared by the captivity of his wife and the death of his valiant brethren; and, besides that, his friends were at one time vexed with all kinds of calamities, and they which escaped death were banished, with the loss of their substance; he himself was not only spoiled of all his patrimony, but of his kingdom also, by the mightiest king of that age, Edward I., king of England, a man most ready in council, and of dispatch of his affairs as well in war as peace. Yea, so far was this Bruce oppressed at one time with all these kinds of evils, that he was driven into extreme poverty: in all which misfortunes he never doubted of the recovery of the kingdom; neither did or said anything unbeseeming the noble mind of a king; for he offered no violent hands to himself, as did the later Cato and Marcus Brutus; neither with Marius did he pursue his enemies with continual hatred. For when he had recovered his former estate, he so lived with them that had most occasioned his labor and trouble, that he rather remembered himself to be a king over them and not an enemy unto them. To conclude, he did not so forsake himself towards the end (when a grievous disease added troubles to age) but that he confirmed and established the present estate of the kingdom, and provided for the quiet of posterity, whereby his subjects did not so much lament his death as that they were deprived of so just a king and godly father."

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## RICHMOND CASTLE.

**T**HE origin of the town of Richmond, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, England, dates from a few years after the conquest. Earl Edwin, who, before that event, possessed the part of the country in which Richmond is situated, was perhaps the most powerful of the Saxon nobles, being, in addition to the extensive lands of which he was lord, nearly allied by blood to the royal family. It was not to be supposed that a person occupying such a position as his would yield anything beyond a forced submission to the Norman invaders. We find the young and brave Earl, accordingly, at the head of two vigorous attempts successively made by those of his nation, to recover the independence of their country, within





RICHMOND CASTLE.

the first three years after the arrival of William. He was pardoned for his participation in the first; but on the second occasion after the revolt had been suppressed, he was betrayed by some persons in whose fidelity he had confided, and notwithstanding a gallant defence overpowered and slain. His assassins carried his head to William, in hopes of obtaining a reward for the deed; when the stern Norman is said to have shed tears at the sight, and, instead of bestowing upon them preferment or gold, to have commanded that the perpetrators of the crime should be banished from the kingdom. Before this, however, he had stripped the Saxon Earl of his broad domains, and transferred them to a follower and kinsman of his own, Alan, Count of Bretagne, to whom he also sometime after gave his daughter Hawise in marriage. By this gift it is said that Count Alan was put in possession of no fewer than two hundred manors and townships. It was he who, to protect himself and his property from the hostile population, in the midst of whom he came to establish himself, built the castle of Richmond, around which the town was probably soon formed by his Norman retainers.

After Alan's death, the Earldom of Richmond descended to a son of Hawise by a former husband, she having left no children by the Count of Bretagne. After this, the dignity was held successively by various families. It was at length erected into a dukedom, by Henry VIII. in favor of his natural son by the daughter of Sir John Blount, who died in 1535, at the age of seventeen. The dukedom fell to the present family in the reign of Charles II., and with it the Castle of Richmond.

The castle has long been a complete ruin. Leland, who saw it in 1534, speaks of it in his *Itinerary* as even then fallen into decay and deserted. Yet it does not appear to have suffered from any siege, or other species of violence. Neglect alone would seem to have reduced it to its present condition. It certainly has not been inhabited at least since the year 1485, when it came into the possession of the Crown, by the accession of Henry VII., who was previously Earl of Richmond.

The town and castle stand on elevated ground on the north bank of the river Swale. The site of the castle which is between the river and the town, occupies a space of about six acres. Except on the north side, or that next the town, the fortress, from the natural advantages of its position, must have been quite inaccessible. The ground on which it is built is elevated to the height of fully one hundred feet above the stream, the precipice being broken into two parts about midway down by a walk eight or nine feet broad, which runs under the castle wall. The portion of the hill above the walk is faced with large stones, so as to give it almost the appearance of a rock. On the west side of the castle is a deep valley, which is probably artificial; and the Swale also winds round the east side, where the descent is much more gradual. On the north there was formerly a moat, which, however, has been long filled up and obliterated. The whole was originally surrounded by a high wall, strengthened at intervals with towers, and measuring not less than half a mile in extent.

For a long time after its erection, Richmond Castle was probably unrivaled in England for either extent or strength. It was a military stronghold, constructed in every part with a view to defence. The old barons lived here in the condition of petty sovereigns, and kept the surrounding country in awe and subjection for many miles around.



The principal portion of the edifice that now remains is an immense square tower on the north side, said to have been built about the middle of the twelfth century. It measures fifty-four feet in one direction, by forty-eight in another; and the walls are ninety-nine feet in height, and eleven in thickness. Above these, pinnacles rise from the four corners. This tower has consisted originally of three stories, the lowest of which is supported by a massive stone pillar placed under the center of its arched roof. The roofs of the two upper stories have fallen in; and a winding staircase, which formerly no doubt ascended to the top, now reaches only to the height of the middle apartment. There is a well of excellent water within this tower. At the south-east corner of the castle there is the ruin of a small tower, in the bottom of which is found a dungeon about fourteen feet in depth. And there is another tower at the south-west corner, round and narrow, and of considerable height, to which there is no entrance except from the top. It was probably used as a prison.

Ruined and desolate as it is, the aspect of Richmond Castle is still singularly majestic and imposing. Its venerable antiquity, its vast extent, its commanding position, and the massiveness and lofty altitude of those parts of the structure which time has not yet overthrown, all contribute to fill the mind with a sense of sublimity in gazing upon its broken arches and ivy-mantled towers. The effect is powerfully aided by the character of the surrounding landscape, which, towards the north-west especially, has much of the grandeur of highland scenery.

Viewed from the surrounding hills, the town and castle of Richmond, notwithstanding their elevation above the ground in their immediate neighborhood, seem to lie at the bottom of a valley. It is extremely probable that the place has derived its name, Richmond, or the Rich Mount, from its eminent natural attractions. Richmond in Surrey is said to have been so named in a much later age on the same account. The scenery around the latter celebrated spot, however, it has been remarked, differs essentially in character from that in the midst of which the Yorkshire Richmond is placed,—the beautiful being the prevailing ingredient in the one, while of the other landscape, a wild and stern grandeur may rather be said to be the predominant expression. With this, which is however intermingled and relieved in many places by the richest attractions of a softer kind, the old and frowning ruin to which our notice relates, is admirably in keeping.

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## CHARTRES.

**C**HARTRES, the principal town of the department of the Eure and Loire, is about sixty-five miles south-west of Paris, on the road which passes through Versailles and Rambouillet to Tours. It is one of the oldest towns in France, and was known to the ancients under the names of Autricum and Carnutum. During the middle ages it was





frequently taken and pillaged, and in the fifteenth century it was for a considerable period in the possession of the English; but it was retaken by Dunois. In 1568 the Protestant party, then in arms, besieged Chartres, but without success. In 1591, when France was torn by internal contests, the town was taken by Henry IV. Three years afterwards he was crowned in the Cathedral; that of Rheims, in which this ceremony had always been performed, not being in his possession; or, as is sometimes stated, the prelate of Rheims being considered a disaffected person, the monarch transferred his favors to Chartres. At the village of Bretigny, a short distance from Chartres, a treaty was signed between the French and English, by which the French King, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Poitiers, in 1356, was restored to his country.

The ancient defences of the town are destroyed, but the houses in many parts of it still retain the appearance which is peculiar to the domestic edifices of the middle ages, standing with their many-gabled fronts towards the narrow and crooked streets; the wood with which they are constructed exhibiting curious specimens of the carver's art. Some of the houses have little towers, which are still more characteristic of the period referred to. The town stands on an eminence, and is divided into the upper and lower town; the former being the most modern, contains the principal inns, the post-office, and other public buildings. Nevertheless the place of St. Peter, which is in the old town, is very agreeably ornamented by alleys of trees. The old ramparts are converted into a Boulevard, which is much frequented as a promenade. The finest public walk is the Place des Barricades, which is beyond the walls. Three of the old gates are standing, the most remarkable of which is the Porte Guillaume. The communication between the upper and lower town is by pathways so steep as totally to exclude the use of carriages.

The spires of the cathedral are visible twenty-five miles before the traveler reaches Chartres, from whatever quarter he approaches the town; and yet it is not possible to obtain a complete view of this fine old edifice, so closely is it surrounded by other buildings. One of the spires is heavy and without ornament, if we except the stones being cut like the scales of a fish, the effect of which is singular rather than pleasing. This spire seems always to be leaning, from whatever point it is viewed. This is owing to the angle which faces the spectator being so straight as to appear as if it were entirely vertical. The other spire is enriched with ornaments towards the middle; but as they are not continued throughout, the effect is not harmonious. The steeples of Chartres are about 306 feet high; that of Strasburg is 492 feet in height. There is in France an old saying to the effect that all the requisites for a perfect church would be combined by adopting the entrance of the Cathedral of Rheims, the nave of that of Amiens, the choir of Beauvais, and the steeple of Chartres. The entrance to the cathedral is by a porch, a portion of which is represented in the cut. The obscurity which reigns in the interior is so great, that except the day be bright, it is not possible to read small print. This is owing to the thickness of the glass, and to its being highly stained. Along the exterior of the choir there are forty-three niches, filled with groups, illustrative of Scripture history, above which are delicately executed Gothic ornaments, and beneath, Arabesque ornaments, equally graceful. The interior part of the choir contains representations in effigy of various scenes in the life of

Christ, executed in Carrara marble by Bridan; and one to commemorate a vow made by Louis XIII. in this cathedral. The choir is surrounded by a double range of lateral naves, sustained by thirty-two pillars. In the middle of the nave the pavement is laid in a spiral form, and is popularly called "la lieue," from the belief that the length of the circles, if traced from their commencement, would be equal to a league. The nave is supported by a single row of sixteen pillars; eight sustain the cross, making altogether fifty-six pillars. The principal altar is remarkable for a colossal group in marble of the Assumption of the Virgin, which was executed in 1773 by Bridan. This work had very nearly been destroyed during the Revolution, but was saved by one of the inhabitants, who proposed changing the Virgin into the Goddess of Liberty, and accordingly placed a Phrygian cap on her head. The group is supported by five columns, which stand in the lower church. This latter portion of the Cathedral, previous to the destruction, during the Revolution, of the chapels and effigies which it contained, was one of the most complete of its kind in France. It is not at present generally exhibited to visitors, though highly curious and picturesque.

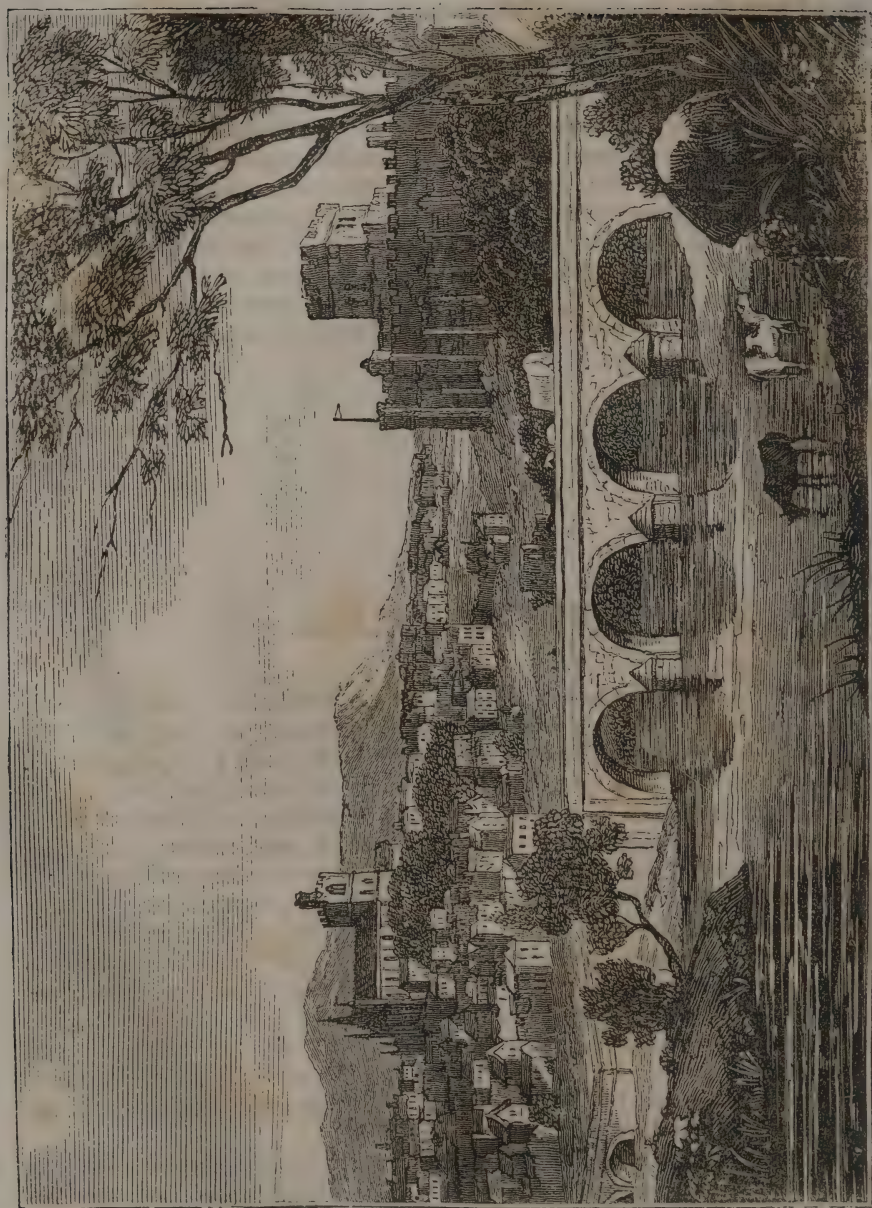
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## CITY OF CARLISLE.

**T**HE city of Carlisle is rich in historic associations; and its castle especially, though now left with a garrison, was long one of the most famous military strongholds. Both it and the Cathedral are built of a reddish freestone, which it must be acknowledged is but little favorable to architectural beauty. The latter edifice, in its oldest parts, appears to be of Saxon times, and it was once of great extent; but during the Commonwealth the greater part of the western or longest limb of the cross which it formed was pulled down, and has not since been rebuilt. What remains of the nave is now used as one of the parish churches, while the cathedral service is performed in the choir. The Castle is supposed to have been begun in the reign of William Rufus, and, therefore, dates from the latter part of the eleventh century. In those days, however, Carlisle was occasionally in the hands of the Scots as well as of the English; and much of the castle is said to have been erected by David I. of Scotland, who took the town in 1135. It was not finally annexed to England till the year 1237, in the reign of Henry III.

Since that date Carlisle has undergone many sieges. The last was that which it sustained in the rebellion of 1745, when it was taken by the Pretender, who was here formally proclaimed as king in the presence of all the municipal authorities in their robes. The garrison, however, which he left in the place, was very soon after compelled to surrender to the Duke of Cumberland.





CITY OF CARLISLE—ENGLAND.

A century before this the town and castle sustained one of the most memorable sieges recorded in English history. On the breaking out of the civil war, the place had been taken possession of by the royal forces; and it was held by Sir Thomas Glenham, Commander-in-chief for the king in the north, when, in October, 1644, it was attacked by a division of the parliamentary army under the command of General Lesley. The besiegers were about 4000 in number, while the garrison with the armed citizens did not exceed 700. An interesting narrative of this siege has been preserved among the Harleian Manuscripts in the British Museum, written by a person of the name of Isaac Tullie, who was in the town all the time; and from the summary of Tullie's account, as given by Mr. Lysons in his *Magna Britannia*, vol. iv., we extract the following particulars:—

“At Christmas all the corn was taken from the citizens, and a ration distributed weekly to each family, according to their numbers. The cattle were seized also and distributed in like manner, no more being given to the owner than to any other, except the head, heart, and liver. \* \* \* April 3.—They had only thatch for the horses, all other provisions being exhausted. May 10.—A fat horse taken from the enemy sold for 10s. a quarter. May 23.—Provisions almost spent. May 30.—News that the king was come into Westmoreland. The garrison that day ate three days' provisions, and repented with a cup of cold water for three days after. \* \* June 5.—Hempseed, dogs, and rats were eaten. The citizens so shrunk that they could not choose but laugh one at another to see their clothes hang on them as upon men on gibbets, for one might put one's head and fists between the doublets and shirts of many of them. June 17.—Some officers and soldiers came to the common bakehouse, and took away all the horse-flesh from the poor people, who were as near starving as themselves. June 22.—The garrison had only half a pound of horse-flesh each for four days. June 23.—The townsmen petitioned Sir Thomas Glenham that the horse-flesh might not be taken away, and said they were not able to endure the famine any longer; several women met at the cross, abusing Sir Henry Stradling, the governor, who threatening to fire on them, they begged it as a mercy, when he went away with tears in his eyes, but said he could not mend their commons. The surrender was on the 25th. A curious feint was practised, to impress the besiegers with the idea that the reports of the distress of the garrison were untrue, a few days before the surrender. An officer sent in by General Lesley, two days following, was sent back in a state of intoxication, from the contents of the only barrel of ale which had been in the garrison for several months, and which had been brewed and preserved for some such purpose, by Dr. Barwell, the chancellor, with the privy of the governor.”

One of the most singular instances on record of a great military fortress being broken into by surprise, is that of the famous border exploit of the deliverance of the Scottish freebooter, William Armstrong, of Kinninmonth, commonly called Kinmont Willie, from the donjon keep of Carlisle Castle. The historical facts of this achievement, which was effected on the 13th of April, 1596, will be found copiously detailed and illustrated in Scott's “*Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*.”





CITY OF BARCELONA—SPAIN.

## BARCELONA.

**A**S the early navigators of the Archipelago crept along the coasts of the Mediterranean, making themselves acquainted first with the shores nearest to them, and soon afterwards with those more distant, it is extremely probable that the suggestions of antiquarians, which assign to Barcelona a high degree of antiquity, are in the main correct. Barcelona, like Marseilles, was most probably a Greek colony. Its Latin name was *Barcino*, and it is said to have been so called after Hannibal *Barcino*, a Carthaginian general. The Romans, Goths, Moors, and French have successively been masters of the town. During the middle ages it was governed by its own sovereigns, who held the title of Counts of Barcelona; but their possessions passed into the hands of the kings of Arragon, and finally were reunited to the Spanish monarchy. In 1706 Barcelona resisted the pretensions of Philip V. to the Spanish throne, and sustained a siege which, though unsuccessful, afforded decisive proofs of the heroism of the Catalonian character. Barcelona has experienced on many occasions the calamitous effects of war. It endured no less than five sieges in the course of sixty-two years, including the one to which we have alluded, which were attended with the usual effects on public interests and individual prosperity. In 1715, after the siege of the preceding year, the population was reduced to 37,000 souls. In the course of half a century, the continuance of peace being favorable to industry, wealth accumulated, and the population had increased, in 1769, to 54,000; eighteen years afterwards it had more than doubled, being 111,410. Thus, not only had the town been enabled to afford the means of livelihood to the inhabitants, who in consequence of the state of comfort in which they were generally placed had rapidly increased in number, but the progress of enterprise was sufficiently active to create a demand for the services of the adjoining population. In 1821 the yellow fever ravaged Barcelona in a most disastrous manner, and it is computed that one-fifth of the inhabitants became its victims. But the infliction of a pestilence produces less effect on men's interests than the continual influence of those alarms which exist during a war, or when a country is torn by internal contests; and accordingly we find that, in 1830, nine years after the yellow fever had ravaged the town, the population had increased to 160,000 inhabitants. When Spain shall be more peaceful and industrious, and when the Levant becomes a more active scene of commerce, the intercourse of Barcelona with Turkey, with Greece, and Egypt, and the eastern shores of the Mediterranean generally, cannot fail to increase. This result will be the consequence both of the geographical position of Barcelona, and of the character of the Catalonians.

Laborde gives the following character of the Catalonians:—"The Catalonians are proud, haughty, violent in their passions, rude in discourse and in action, turbulent, untractable, and passionately fond of independence; they are not particularly liberal, but active, industrious and indefatigable; they are sailors, husbandmen, and builders, and run to all corners of the



world to seek their fortunes. They are brave, intrepid, sometimes rash, obstinate in adhering to their schemes, and often successful in vanquishing, by their steady perseverance, obstacles which would appear insurmountable to others."

Barcelona stands on a gentle eminence, between two rivers, and open to the sea on the east, north-east, and south-east. The river Bergos runs to the north and south-east of the town, and on the south the river Llobregat. The country is mountainous to the north and north-east. The latitude of Barcelona is  $41^{\circ} 21'$  and a few seconds. The climate is temperate, the winters are mild, and the summers not too hot; but although the seasons, in their general character, are not irregular, yet in a single day great vicissitudes are frequently experienced at Barcelona. The east wind frequently blows, and the neighboring elevations often occasion rain. The town is defended by a citadel, situated at its north-eastern extremity. The port is below the citadel, and between the town and Barcelonetta. It is chiefly artificial, being formed by piers, solid quays, and the ramparts of the town. The sand which the waves and tides bring into the port is removed at considerable trouble and expense. The town is divided into two unequal parts by a promenade, ornamented with rows of trees. The new town is the smallest, and contains the best houses. The streets are narrow, crooked, and badly paved in the old town. The best houses are of simple and rather pleasing appearance, from four to five stories high, and have large windows and balconies. Many of the houses are adorned externally with paintings in fresco. The public edifices are the cathedral, churches, convents, the palace in which the ancient Cortes held their sittings, that in which the Counts of Barcelona resided, the custom-house, exchange, theatre, &c. The cathedral was begun in the thirteenth century, but is not yet completely finished. There are about thirty fountains in Barcelona, in the various squares and public places. The town possesses several colleges, three public libraries, a school for the deaf and dumb, an academy of arts and sciences, and one of belles lettres, and a botanic garden. Barcelonetta is a suburb of Barcelona, and is inhabited chiefly by sailors.

The environs of Barcelona are highly beautiful. Though the Catalonians are distinguished for their habits of economy, yet their passion for a country residence is the one which they are least capable of opposing; and there is no city in Europe of an equal size which possesses so many country-houses in its neighborhood. It is not the richer class who alone enjoy the advantages and pleasures of the country; these residences, ornamented according to the taste and circumstances of each of their occupiers, form a most agreeable diversity in the prospects around the town, especially when the town itself and an extensive view of the sea are included, as they may be from certain places. In a fine day, the eye may wander with delight over this agreeably varied landscape.

## THE PILGRIMAGES OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

**T**HE life of man is frequently termed a pilgrimage; but in the sense in which the word is usually employed, it is applied to a journey undertaken for devotional purposes, or to gratify the interest which remarkable events have excited by a visit to the spot in which they took place. The birth-place or tomb of the truly illustrious is equally calculated to stir up emotions of deeper interest than those to which the mind is capable of rising when it is not operated upon by the recollection that here the men themselves acted their part in the scene of life, or there their ashes are deposited. Dr. Johnson, who visited Icolmkill, one of the western islands of Scotland, which, in remote ages, was, as he says, the "luminary of the Caledonian regions," thus speaks of the nature of those emotions to which we have alluded:—"To abstract the mind," he says, "from all local emotions would be impossible, if it were endeavored, and would be foolish, if it were possible. Whatever draws us from the power of our senses,—whatever makes the past, the distant, or the future, predominate over the present, advances us in the dignity of thinking beings. That man is little to be envied whose patriotism would not gain force upon the plain of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona."

The places to which the Christian pilgrims of the middle ages chiefly resorted were Rome, Loretto, Jerusalem, Compostella in Spain, and the local shrines with which every part of Christendom abounded. Two pilgrimages to a neighboring shrine were equivalent to one visit to another at double the distance. Those who were unable to make long journeys gave money to assist the poorer pilgrims on their way. A dream or vision was frequently the preliminary of a pilgrimage; and the belief was general, that if certain pilgrimages were not made during life they must be performed after death. Southey remarks, in one of his minor poems,—

"Some went for payment of a vow,  
In time of trouble made;  
And some who found that pilgrimage  
Was a pleasant sort of trade."

All classes—from the king to the peasant—from the archbishop to the humblest clerk—bent beneath the custom of the times.

The Holy Land was resorted to by pilgrims as early as the fourth century. The passage to Asia by land was subsequently closed in consequence of the hostility of the Hungarians, and Rome and Loretto then attracted the greatest number of pilgrims. In the eighth century the Anglo-Saxons made frequent pilgrimages to Rome; and at an earlier period than this, Cadwallader, King of Wales, founded a hospital at Rome for Welsh pilgrims. The great jubilees of the church drew to Rome large numbers both of sinners and devotees, for at these festivals plenary indulgences were granted for the remission of all sins. Indulgences of a less extensive nature were granted at all periods to those who made a pilgrimage to the holy relic called the Veronique, or Vernicle.





SCALLOP SHELL OF THE PILGRIMS.

The church of Loretto was in high repute during the middle ages as an efficacious resort for pilgrims; and at particular seasons there were frequently not fewer than 200,000 visiting it at once. They formed processions round the "Palace of our Lady," as it was called; and some went round it on their knees five, nine, or a dozen times, according to the importance with which they were pleased to invest any particular number.

In the fifteenth century the pilgrimage to St. James, or Santiago of Compostella, the patron-saint of Spain, was quite a passion among all classes, and the local shrines were comparatively forsaken. Charlemagne had caused the place to be made the seat of a bishopric; and afterwards, through the influence of Ferdinand and Isabella, who founded a hospital there for pilgrims, it was erected into an archbishopric. The number of English pilgrims who visited Compostella in the fifteenth century was very great.

The pilgrimage to Palestine, the scene of sacred history, had the most important influence on the religious spirit of the middle ages, and was sanctioned by the most rational motives. In the present day the Holy Land may properly be regarded as one of the most interesting portions of the globe which a traveler can visit, while the glories of Compostella and Loretto have long since departed. Jerusalem had been visited from an early period of Christianity by devout Christians. The anticipated termination of the world with the arrival of the thousandth year of the present era, strongly directed men's minds to religious subjects. A natural impulse of gratitude, when it was found that after this dreaded period the world went on as before, led men to visit the scenes distinguished in the history of the Saviour. The conversion of the Hungarians from paganism to Christianity—an event which was hailed with rapture by all Christendom—contributed to increase the religious excitement which was prevalent. Sharon Turner, in his *History of England during the Middle Ages*, says that in the eleventh century the inferior orders, on whom natural feelings always first operate, began the peregrination. Their return and conversation excited the middle ranks to imitate them; and at last nobles, ladies, and kings imbibed the passion, and traversed Europe and Asia to Jerusalem. The pilgrims were received by the patriarch, and with a solemn procession were led amid the thunder of cymbals and immense splendor of lights to the church of the Holy Sepulchre. Jerusalem was at this period in the possession of the Mohammedans, who often maltreated the pilgrims with impunity, and refused them permission to enter the city without the payment of a tribute. Wasted as they were with the hardships of so long a journey, when the means of traveling were very imperfect, their resources exhausted by the tolls which they had paid in crossing bridges and entering towns, and by the cost of providing themselves with necessaries on the road, their condition was frequently deplorable in the extreme. William of Tyre says that there was scarcely one out of a thousand who reached Jerusalem who could support himself. Towards the close of the eleventh century, Peter the Hermit made the pilgrimage to Palestine, and was so deeply touched by the sufferings of the pilgrims, and indignant at the conduct of the infidels who held possession of the city, that on his return he roused all Europe to that great movement of the middle ages, called the Crusades or the Holy War, which to a great extent partook of the nature of a pilgrimage.



The above-mentioned places were the principal resorts of pilgrims from the various countries of Europe. There were in England, however, and also in the rest of Europe, local shrines which were visited under a great variety of circumstances. Strutt says that it seems to have been almost as fashionable in the days of Chaucer to visit the tomb of some favorite saint, as it now is to frequent the different watering-places; and the Rev. T. D. Fosbroke, in noticing the custom, in his work on British Monachism, mentions some of the circumstances which occasioned the practice to be so common. Shrines were visited before making a voyage, to ensure the prayers of the saint for safety. To some shrines annual pilgrimages were made; and others were only resorted to as events occurred or were anticipated, which rendered it of interest to the parties concerned to visit them. A visit to the shrine of Becket was considered of universal efficacy. His skull encased in silver was shown to the pilgrims, and the blade of the weapon with which he was killed, and other relics. The shrine was extremely rich in offerings, which were exhibited through a strong grating by a prior with a white wand.

We are chiefly indebted to the Rev. Mr. Fosbroke's work for the subsequent information relative to the costume of pilgrims. He states that they were peculiarly designated by the scrip, the staff or bourdon, palmer's staff, scarf, selavina, hat, rosary, and scrobula.

The scrip was derived from the Egyptian monks, and was usually a leathern pouch or wallet, attached to the scarf, and used for containing provisions and other necessaries. Thus Chaucer says,—

“In scrippe he bore both bread and leaks.”

Charlemagne wore a golden scrip when he made the pilgrimage to Rome. The term scrip was sometimes applied to the whole of the articles which a pilgrim carried along with him. A sack instead of a scrip is mentioned as being carried by a poor female pilgrim. The scarf was simply a leathern thong or belt.

A bourdon was a long staff with a knob in the middle, and without a cross at the top, though in theatrical representations one is erroneously affixed. This staff was sometimes excavated into a rude piece of music, the sound from which was an accompaniment to the singing with which pilgrims beguiled the tedium of their journey. In Germany, walking-sticks are made which serve as tubes for pipes, with a compressing pump at one end to obtain fire, or fitted up as telescopes. A walking-stick may be used for such a variety of purposes, that we may easily believe, though it is not quite satisfactorily proved, that the bourdon staff of the pilgrims was formed into a musical instrument. Southey has alluded to the fact in the following lines:

“And the staff was holed and bored for those  
Who on a flute could play,  
And thus the merry pilgrim had  
His music on the way.”

From a dialogue between a disciple of Wicliffe and Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Henry IV., it would appear that the pilgrims were sometimes accompanied by less simple music than that of a hollowed staff. The Archbishop defends the practice against some insinuations, and states that “pilgrims have with them both singers and also pipers, that when one of them goeth barefoot and striketh his foot against a stone, and

maketh him to bleed, it is well done that he or his fellow begin then a song, or else take out of his bosom a bagpipe for to drive away with such mirth the hurt of his fellow: for with such solace the travail and weariness of pilgrims is lightly and merrily brought forth." The palmer's staff was made of palm and was borne by those who returned from Palestine. We may here state the difference which, according to Mr. Fosbroke, distinguished the palmer from the pilgrim. A pilgrim had a fixed residence, a palmer had none; a pilgrim went to a fixed place, a palmer to none in particular; a pilgrim went at his own expense, a palmer professed voluntary poverty, and frequently ended life as a hermit.

The *sclavina* was a long coarse robe. The *serobula* was the robe worn by female pilgrims, and, with the exception of closer sleeves, similar to the *sclavina*. The rosary was a string of beads which the pilgrim ran over as he repeated his prayers. The hat was broad brimmed, turned up in front, and something like the hats often worn by infants. Sometimes the pilgrim's hat was slung at his back, and a substitute for shooting off the wet was used to supply its place.

The pilgrim from Rome, from Jerusalem, or Compostella, was distinguished by variations of costume peculiar to each pilgrimage. The Jerusalem pilgrims wore the signs of Sinai, which were relics brought from thence. Those who had made a pilgrimage to Rome wore a cloak marked with cross-keys and the veronique or vernicle. The scallop-shell which the pilgrims wore in the front of their hats was, properly speaking, peculiar to the Compostella pilgrimage. Fuller therefore is not correct in assigning the use of this shell to pilgrims generally, on the ground that "it was oft cup and dish to them in Palestine." Southey's notes to the "Pilgrims to Compostella" contain an old monkish legend which gives the origin of scallop-shells being worn by the pilgrims to the shrine of the Spanish saint. Popes Alexander III., Gregory IX., and Clement X. granted a faculty to the Archbishop of Compostella that they might excommunicate those who sold these shells any where except in the city of Santiago, and in these documents the reason assigned is, that the scallop-shell is the badge of the Apostle Santiago. In the church of St. Clement at Rome there is a picture of Santiago, apparently more than 500 years old, which is decorated with scallop-shells. The scallop-shell in a coat-of-arms shows that some of the bearer's line have visited the shrine of St. James. The cut represents one of these shells, on which St. Joseph, with a staff of palm in his hand, and carrying the infant Jesus, has been worked in bas-relief.

Before setting out on a pilgrimage, confession of sins was made, which being concluded, the future pilgrim prostrated himself before the altar. Certain prayers were then said, after which the scrip and staff were solemnly consecrated; and the pilgrim was clothed in his appropriate costume. In the form of prayers in use before the Reformation, the people were bid to pray "for all true pilgrims and palmers that have taken their way to Rome, to Jerusalem," &c. Mr. Fosbroke says that in Normandy, a pilgrim who had received the sanction and blessing of the church, was led out of the parish in procession, accompanied by the cross and holy water; and on the return from pilgrimage it was in most countries the custom to go to the church to thank God for their happy success; and in proof of the fulfilment of their vows to proffer palms or branches of that tree to the priest, who placed them on the altar. These ceremonies would naturally



fall into desuetude when the habit of undertaking pilgrimages became more general.

Pilgrimages to the Holy Land, as a general fashion, ceased about the time of Henry V. The growing activity of commerce supplied a new motive for visiting foreign lands. But pilgrimages had not been without their use in the advancement of civilization.

St. Jerome noticed that pilgrims conveyed news. "In one summer (he says) Britain has learned what the Egyptian and Parthian have known in the spring." It is believed that the drama was first introduced into France from Italy by Pilgrims. Mr. Fosbroke says,—“Pilgrimage was a kind of apprenticeship, served in various places, in order to acquire a stock of novel ecclesiastical customs and knowledge.” At a time when commerce employed but a few individuals, there would have been no inducement to visit other countries if men had not been actuated by the religious spirit. But this operated upon the mass of the people, and sent them to gather the various lessons of civilization and improvement which each country respectively furnished.

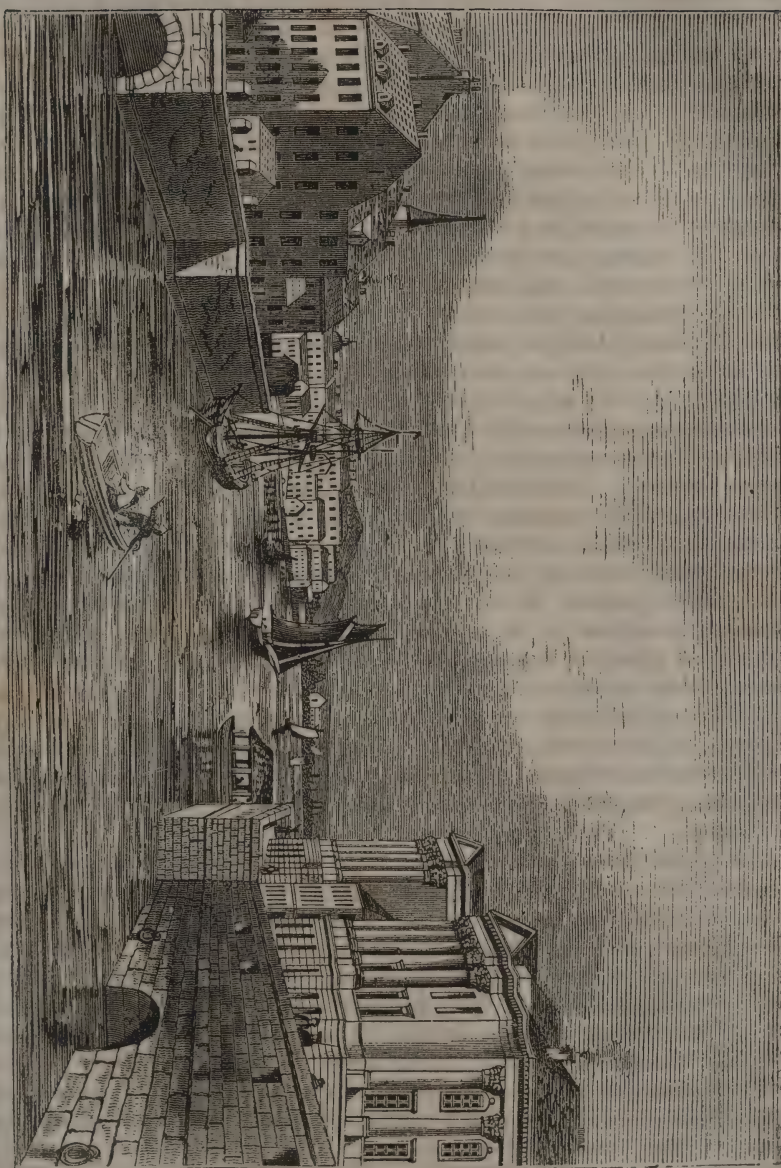
The standard by which the state of one country may be compared with that of another was rendered more enlarged and varied by the habit of visiting distant shrines; and a comparatively rude people were enabled to obtain by this means, some of the benefits of a superior civilization. Sharon Turner remarks, that “the habit of pilgrimage, and afterwards of the crusades, increased the taste for study. It was impossible for so many, from all ranks and nations in Europe, to visit the Grecian and Arab states without some conviction of the benefit of superior knowledge. From the account left by Luitprand of the wonders he saw at Constantinople, and of the horse-laugh with which his astonishment was received by the conceited courtiers, it would seem that the saucy Greeks amused themselves with making the western barbarians stare. The specimens of their mechanical skill to which he alludes may have first interested a rude stranger’s notice; but their tasteful architecture,—their elegant sculptures,—their fine manuscripts,—their celebrated loquacity,—and the fame of the poets and philosophers who once adorned their name, must have powerfully impressed the attention of many, and have created that feeling of deficiency and that desire of emulation which are the certain parents of improvement.” He adds, that a visible improvement took place in England after these pilgrimages had become common, increasing as the crusades increased the intercourse with Constantinople and the East. Schools were established, and architecture and the arts advanced.

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## STOCKHOLM.



THE beauty and peculiarity of the position on which the capital of Sweden is built, have excited the surprise and admiration of all travelers. It seems to have been selected with a happy reference both to picturesque effect and commercial convenience, and we are unwilling to believe the popular tradition that attributes the choice of the spot to mere



CITY OF STOCKHOLM—SWEDEN.



chance. According to this "say" of the inhabitants, about three centuries and a half ago, the Viceroy Berger Jarl, or Earl Berger, who then governed Sweden, determined to found a city, but instead of fixing the spot from the dictates of judgment and taste, he preferred committing the event to chance. To this end he set a piece of wood or stick afloat down the Mälar lake, wisely determining that at whatever place it should stop, there to build his projected town. A small island arrested the stick in its progress, and the name of Stockholm, which, literally translated, means "Stick-island," is said to have been given it from this circumstance.

Stockholm is built on seven small rocky islands, at the junction of the waters of the Mälar, the most picturesque of all Swedish lakes, with an inlet or arm of the Baltic sea. It in this respect somewhat resembles Venice, but the water that flows between its islets is clearer, and far deeper, than that of the *canali* and *lagune* of the Italian city, admitting the largest ships to sail among the houses. These islands, which are irregularly scattered, are covered with buildings, gardens, and groves, the domes of churches intermingling with oak-trees: at certain points they are connected together by stately bridges, but more direct communications are kept up by means of wherries, that are seen constantly rowing from place to place. A great part of the city stands upon the steep declivity of a very high hill, houses rising above houses like the seats in an amphitheatre. The whole is surmounted by an enormous palace, which Heber thought "as big as five Somerset Houses." Indeed all the houses that meet the eye are large and many-storied, with a common staircase, and generally a family on each floor; they are chiefly of brick, but universally stuccoed or whitewashed. The lower parts of the city that are built of wood, are masked and concealed by the better portions of it. The faubourgs or suburbs, stretch up surrounding elevations on the mainland, to the north and south, and consist principally of gardens, elegant houses, and even beautiful edifices. The northern quarter or suburb, called Norrmalm, is exceedingly handsome, and is traversed in its whole extent by the Drottning-Gatan, or Street of the Queen, which is broad, straight, and upwards of half a mile in length. The other streets are generally winding and narrow, and do not permit of a lengthening perspective of the architecture of the houses, which is mostly in good taste.

But it is not from the streets that one can judge of the beauty of Stockholm; it is on the quays by the water-side, and in the large and numerous squares, that the eye embraces the magnificent features of the Swedish capital, with its infinite number of architectural and other decorations. Some of the quays are very noble, and interest at once by the beautiful buildings that flank them and the great commercial activity and bustle of which they are the scene. They are very broad and have upwards of ten fathoms water at their sides. Beyond them the view is generally terminated by the clear waters of the Baltic, or by the quiet and romantic Mälar lake, which winds into the interior of the country to the distance of more than twenty-five leagues. The Slottet, or king's palace, stands in the city proper, on the elevated summit of the central islet called the Staden, or island of the city. Two bronze lions of a most colossal size stand in front of this vast, simple, and majestic building, which is flanked on one side by a fine terrace and a garden.

Among other treasures the apartments of the palace contain many of the

exquisite works of Sergel, the Swedish sculptor. The chief ornaments of the squares are columns and statues, erected in honor of the national heroes; and these works of art are far more numerous than might be imagined. In the Riddar-hus square, among many other public monuments, there is a fine equestrian statue of the great Gustavus Vasa; in the Norrmalm square, an equestrian statue, in bronze, of Gustavus Adolphus; in the Slotsbacken square a beautiful bronze statue, supported on a lofty pedestal of Elfdalen porphyry, of Gustavus III., besides a fine granite obelisk, erected by the latter prince in honor of the burger militia of Stockholm.

The most interesting church in Stockholm is the Riddarhuskyrken, which contains a great number of tombs, sarcophagi, trophies, and the ashes of a long line of Swedish kings, among whom are Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. The exterior of this edifice is exceedingly rich in details and ornaments, without appearing to be overloaded by them. A steeple of prodigious height, but very slender and tapering, shoots boldly up from the midst of a group of small domes and cupolas, that remind the traveler of some of the mosques of Constantinople, and of the Church of San Marco at Venice.

The great arsenal of Stockholm, along with a good deal of worthless trash, contains many interesting objects, and some of which are very dear to the military pride of the Swedes. There is a large hall, filled on one side with effigies of the kings of Sweden on horseback, done in wood and wax, and very like (and just as vile as objects of art) the old figures of kings that used to be in the Tower of London. In other apartments there are prodigious heaps of arms, standards, and other trophies taken by the victorious Swedes from the Danes, Russians, Poles, Saxons, and Austrians. There is a curious boat, said to have been built by Peter the Great, when he was studying the art of ship-building, which was taken by the Swedes on its passage from Saardam. They preserve with scrupulous care the breast-plate, buff-coat, and bloody shirt which Gustavus Adolphus had on when he fell at Lutzen, in 1682: and the famous uniform worn by Charles XII. when he was killed at Frederichshall, in 1718. Charles's coat is a coarse blue cloth regimental one, such as was worn by every common soldier. He had round his waist a broad buff-leather belt, in which hung his sword—a plain rapier, almost five feet long. His gloves and boots are remarkably small, and with other parts of his dress prove the hero to have been a man of very slight make.

The Admiralty, the Military Academy, the Cabinet of Natural History, and the Senate-house, are interesting objects; and the hospitals and other charitable establishments, together with the manner in which they are administered, are highly honorable to the Swedish government and people. From the inequality of the surface of the rocks on which they are built, some quarters of the town are steep and inconvenient for carriages; nor are the streets of Stockholm in general well paved. There are no flag-stones at the sides for foot passengers.

The numerous passage-boats, which, like the gondolas at Venice, are kept in constant requisition, are all rowed by women. For longer excursions elegant steamboats are now employed, one or two of which set out every day, during the fine season, with holiday parties to visit the island of Drottningholm, where there is a summer palace of the king, surrounded by



woods and gardens. In the immediate neighborhood of the city there are two public promenades open to all classes, and available alike to those who walk, ride, or drive in carriages. There is a royal palace at each of these favorite spots; the one called Haga, the other Rosendal, or Valley of Roses. The views from the latter, which is situated on the left bank of the Salt-Sjön, as the channel of the Mälar is called below Stockholm, are very interesting. In one direction the eye takes in dark forests of pine, in another the bed of the channel, dotted all over with small islands and rocks, of which some are covered with magazines of naval or military stores, and others left in their native rudeness. Where the Salt-Sjön is broad and unimpeded the stream is tranquil and slow, but in the narrow passages between the islands it rushes on rapidly, whitening their rocks with froth and foam. On the whole, few situations can be more romantic than that of this extraordinary town and suburbs.

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## ROCHESTER CASTLE.

**G**LOSE by the side of the river, and immediately above the bridge, stands Rochester Castle; still, though now a bleak and roofless ruin, retaining many unobliterated features of its ancient vastness and magnificence. Its site is considerably elevated above the general level of the city; and, dilapidated as its walls are, they still tower far above all the other buildings in the neighborhood, the pinnacles of the cathedral only excepted. The principal part of the castle may, indeed, it is said, be seen from a distance of twenty miles.

As Rochester was a military station in the latter times of the Roman empire in Britain, there is reason to believe that a fort occupied the site of the present castle, the position of which is exactly such as would have recommended it for such an erection. Many Roman coins have been found within the circuit of the castle, but none in any other part of the city; from which we may conclude that this was the only part of the city which existed in the time of the Romans. This supposition is still further confirmed by the language of documents of the Saxon period, which speak of the place as still merely a castle. Indeed the name Rochester, is an evidence that the station was originally merely a chester, castrum, or camp, and that the town has gradually grown up around the military fort.

The oldest portion of the present ruin is in the early Norman style of architecture. The building was probably the work of the Conqueror, — one of the many strongholds which he erected in all parts of the country to maintain his foreign dominion. Here it appears that his illegitimate brother, the famous Odo, Bishop of Bayeux and Earl of Kent, resided, and kept his court as a sort of petty sovereign of the country. After the death of the Conqueror, Odo, who espoused the cause of his eldest son Robert, shut himself up in this castle, and being joined by many of the nobility, for some time resisted the arms of Rufus. The rebels were, however, at length reduced. In the latter part of this, or the commencement of the following reign, the vast and lofty tower which now forms



RUINS OF ROCHESTER CASTLE.



the principal part of the ruin, is said to have been built by the famous Bishop Gundulph. But if the bishop's whole expenditure, as is asserted, was only "three score pounds," comparatively cheap as labor and materials then were, he could not with that sum have advanced such a building very far. It is not improbable, therefore, that the tower was completed, and indeed principally constructed, at the expense of the Archbishop of Canterbury, to whom the castle was granted by Henry I., and by whom it is known that extensive repairs and improvements were executed upon the fabric. "By means of which cost done upon it at that time," says Lambarde, "the Castle of Rochester was much in the eye of such as were the authors of troubles following within the realm, so that from time to time it had a part almost in every tragedy."

In the reign of John, Rochester Castle was taken possession of, first in 1215, by the insurgent barons, who were, however, after some time, obliged to surrender to the king's forces, and, in the following year, by the Dauphin of France, whom they had called over to their assistance. In the time of the next king, Henry III., its strength was again attempted to be turned against the crown, having, in 1264, immediately after the battle of Lewes, been attacked by the victorious Montfort, Earl of Leicester. This celebrated person, Lambarde tells us, "girded the city of Rochester about with a mighty siege, and setting on fire the wooden bridge, and a tower of timber that stood thereon, won the first gate or ward of the castle by assault, and spoiled the church and abbey; but being manfully resisted seven days together by Earl Warren that was within, and hearing suddenly of the king's coming thitherward, he prepared to meet him in person, and left others to continue the siege, all which were soon after put to flight by the king's army."

The last repair of the building that is recorded to have taken place was in 1461, in the reign of Edward IV. Since then it appears to have been almost entirely neglected, and has been allowed gradually to fall into the ruinous state in which it now appears, though not without the waste of time having been assisted by active dilapidation.

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## LONDON AND BIRMINGHAM RAILWAY.

**B**IRMINGHAM station on the London and Birmingham Railway lies on the north-eastern extremity of the town, adjoining the station of the Grand Junction Railway, and not far from the great London road. The buildings of the station are similar in character to those of the London station at Euston Square. There are covered yards for the trains, ranges of buildings for booking-offices, containing also spacious apartments as waiting rooms for the passengers; and other buildings, some of which are not quite finished, for the reception of goods, engines, &c. Our wood-cut gives a view of the principal entrance. The building here represented contains a spacious "refreshment-room," so that the impatient traveler, posting from London to Liverpool, need not enter Birmingham seeking for an inn; and very shortly he will be "transferred" from one railway to another without any trouble to himself.

ENGLISH RAILWAY STATION.





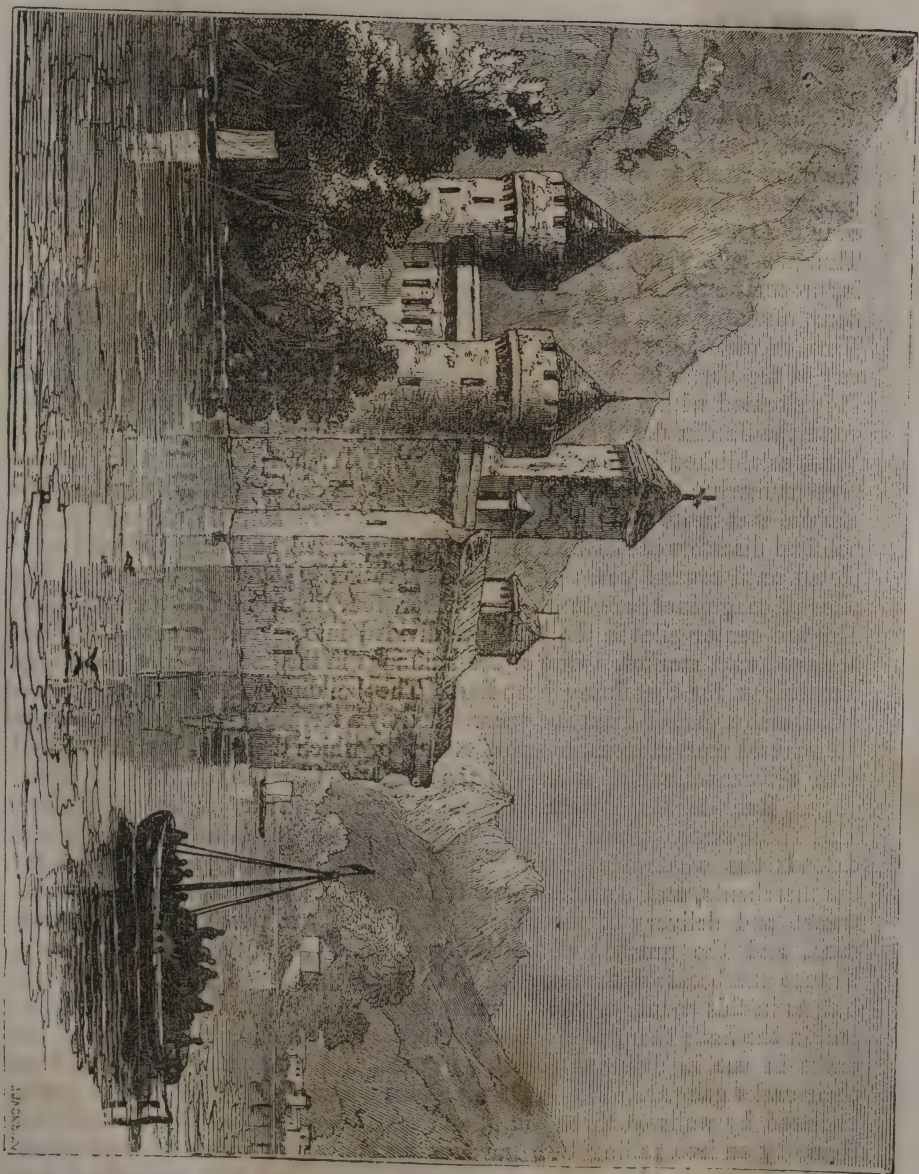
## THE CASTLE OF CHILLON.

**T**HE Castle of Chillon is built on the north-eastern shore of the Lake of Geneva, near the mouths of the Rhone. The Lake is here seven miles wide, and of great depth. The castle is built on a flat rock near the shore, from which access is obtained by a wooden bridge; many years since it was used as a state prison. The Duke of Savoy, the oppressor of the Genevese, enclosed within its dungeons the firmest supporters of the independence of Geneva; amongst whom was François de Bonnivard. He was confined from 1530 to 1536. The Duke of Savoy was determined on stifling the Reformation, if it were possible for his armed bands to effect such an object; but his persecution and tyranny drove his victims to arms. He endeavored to starve the Genevese into submission by intercepting their supplies, but they boldly fitted out five boats, each manned with eighty soldiers, and crossed the lake to procure provisions on his own territory. Being afterwards aided by 7000 Burnese, the Duke's position soon became desperate, and the last place which held out for him was the castle of Chillon. It was invested both by land and water, and the imprisoned Swiss heard the cannon of their victorious countrymen battering the walls which had so long confined them. Bonnivard was among the number released. He had worn a track across the rocky floor of his cell by pacing it so many weary days and nights. Lord Byron's fine "Sonnet on Chillon" alludes to this circumstance:—

Chillon! thy prison is a holy place,  
And thy sad floor an altar—for 'twas trod,  
Until his very steps have left a trace  
Worn, as if thy cold pavement were a sod,  
By Bonnivard!—May none those marks efface!  
For they appeal from tyranny to God.

Lord Byron, in his note on the castle of Chillon, says,—“Within it are a range of dungeons. Across one of the vaults is a beam black with age, on which we were informed that the condemned were formerly executed. In the cellars are seven pillars, or rather eight, one being merged in the wall; in some of them are rings for the fetters and the fettered; in the pavement the steps of Bonnivard have left their trace.” M. Simond visited the castle in 1817: it was then garrisoned by a few lazy soldiers, one of whom guided him to the dungeon said to be beneath the level of the lake, M. Simond, however, was sceptical on this latter point. He says, “Comparing the height of the loop-hole grates, *where captives weep*, (as he sarcastically remarks,) above the water's edge on the outside, and above the rocky floor inside, I remained satisfied the latter was something above the former:—particularly when I observed a hollow place full of water, which must come from the lake, and would rise above the floor of the dungeon if it really were lower than the level of the lake.” The writer satirically adds,—“It grieves me to contradict poets or picturesque and sentimental travelers, but really the dungeon of Chillon is not under water; and, besides, is absolutely a comfortably sort of dungeon enough, full forty feet long, fifteen or twenty feet wide, and fifteen feet high, with several narrow slits into the thick wall, above reach, but admitting air and light, and even some rays of sun.”

CASTLE OF CHILLON



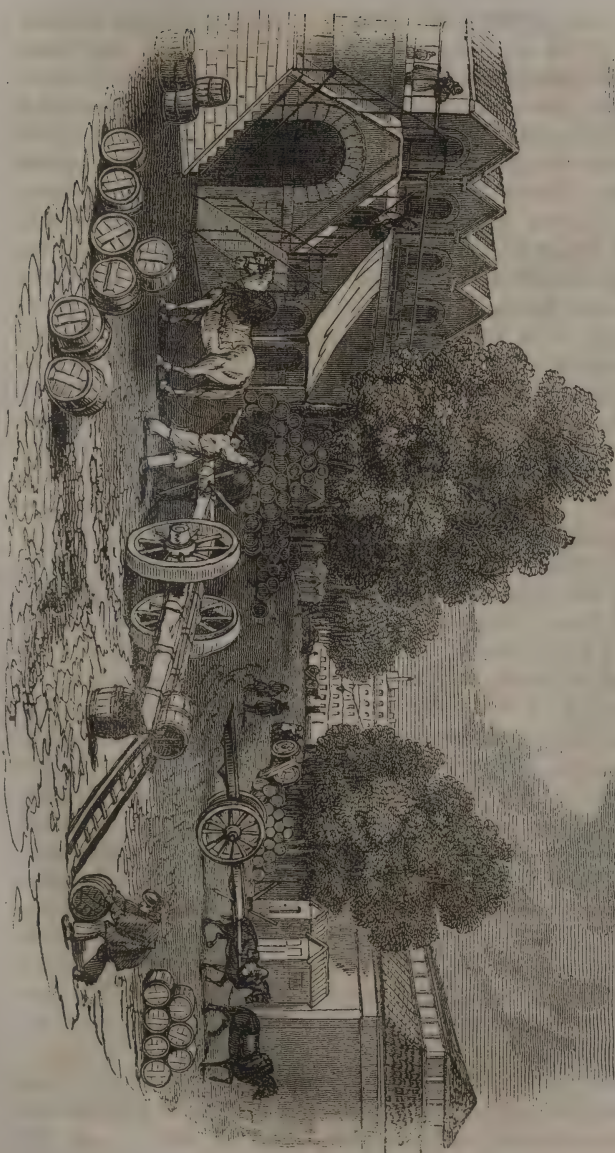
J. M. W. T. N.



## THE WINE-MARKET AT PARIS.

**H**ALLE and *marche* are words often applied in an indiscriminate manner, but there exists a difference between their true import which it may be useful to observe. A *halle* is a place of depot for merchandize, where it is at the same time stored for consumption and exposed for sale; and it is of course sheltered from the elements. A *marche*, on the other hand, is an open space of ground where articles are not stored, but merely brought for immediate sale. When the business of the day is over the *marche* is a vacant space, while the *halle* still contains its stores. Thus the spot where butter, eggs, fish, or vegetables are brought for sale is, properly speaking, a *marche*, while the appointed public place where flour, cloth, or wine are constantly kept on sale is a *halle*. The Halle aux Vins, or wine market, is one of the most complete and best arranged of any of the places in Paris for the accommodation of merchants and traders. It is situated within the walls of the capital, at its eastern extremity, beyond the Jardin des Plantes. The inconvenience of the old Halle aux Vins, established in 1656, had long been felt; but the first stone of the present market was not placed until the 15th of August, 1813, when the Empire was in its wane. At first the works were actively carried on, but political disasters occasioned them to be suspended, and they were not completed until several years after the Restoration. It fronts the river. The piles of magazines are seven in number, four in front and three behind. The two center piles in the front are divided into seven compartments, and are used as a market. One of the buildings in the back division is of large dimensions, for containing brandies. The buildings are neat and commodious, and a part of them are surrounded by a terrace. The space between the several masses forms a sort of street, of which there are several, named after different kinds of wine—as the Rue de Champagne, Rue de Bourgogne, Rue de Bordeaux, Rue de Languedoc, Rue de la Côte d'Or. This latter street, which is represented in the engraving, is the finest, and extends the whole length of the *halle*. There are counting-houses for the merchants, and small *bureaux* for the officers who superintend the entrance and delivery of the wines. A duty of ten pence is paid on each cask, and the number of entries sometimes amounts to 1,500 a-day. France can boast of the simplicity of its system of weights and measures, but, as in this country, improvements are often obstructed by local customs; and in the *halle* there is a *bureau de depotage*, containing measures of the casks in use in different parts of France, and here purchasers can have their casks gauged. The Halle aux Vins contains 325,000 square yards, enclosed by walls on three sides, and separated on the side towards the Seine by an iron railing 889 yards in length. The buildings were calculated to contain 400,000 casks, though in making this estimate it was thought there would only be one row of casks above the ground-floor; but the manner in which the constructions were completed renders it probable that they will hold 600,000 to 800,000 casks.

HALLE AUX VINS—PARIS.





## UPSALA.



UPSALA or Upsal, formerly the capital of all Sweden, at present of the province of Upsala, is an exceedingly pretty but small town, rendered remarkable by its ancient university and cathedral. It is situated near to the great lake Mälär, which facilitates its commercial intercourse with Stockholm, the present capital of the kingdom, but which lies low, and so much out of sight as not to enter into any of the views from Upsala or its environs. Several steamboats already navigate this lake. The little river Fyrisa runs through Upsala and falls into the Mälär. Within the town the banks of this river are planted with trees, and as, generally speaking, the houses are built apart from each other, and have gardens and groves about them, the effect, in the fine season of the year, is remarkably pleasing. The present fixed population does not exceed 5,000 souls, to which number, however, may be added the students frequenting the university, who generally amount to about 800. This seat of learning gives a quiet, academic aspect to the whole city, of which no inconsiderable part is occupied by the different buildings devoted to letters and science. Among these edifices the new library, a detached building, is the most considerable. Its architecture is simple and elegant, its situation excellent, for it stands on a gentle eminence that faces one of the principal streets, and is seen from most parts of the city.

The old buildings of the university are remarkable rather for their number and the variety of useful purposes to which they are devoted than for any external display of architecture. There are separate houses for the different professors and lecturers, who are numerous, and who have generally been distinguished, as a body, by their acquirements and the conscientious discharge of their duties as teachers. Their salaries are small, and the fees, which are paid only on the admission of students, very inconsiderable; but to make up a proper remuneration for men of learning, such of them as are in holy orders have also prebends in the cathedral churches. Anciently, the different nations, as they are called, which compose the Swedish monarchy, namely, the Ostrogoths, Westrogoths, Swedes, Finns, and Vandals, had all different academic dresses, which were discontinued on account of the animosities to which they gave rise. The interesting nomenclature which revives the recollection of mighty invasions and revolutions, when the Roman empire fell under the sword of the free men of the north, is still, however, retained, and each nation has its separate heads and endowments in the university.

The foundation of the University of Upsala dates from the year 1476, when Sten Sture, the elder, obtained the requisite bull from Pope Sixtus IV., and took the ancient University of Bologna for his model. In the course of the following year the government and senators of Sweden granted to the institution the same privileges as were enjoyed by the University of Paris. In 1624, after the reformation of religion, the great Gustavus Adolphus, who was a benefactor to the institution, reorganized it



UPSALA—SWEDEN.



in a few essential respects, and assigned it some estates which were put under the direction of the professors themselves in consistory. By an old law, which we believe is still observed, no one can undertake the important offices of a civil magistrate in Sweden without having undergone a public examination at one of the three Universities of Upsal, Obo, or Lund. The old library of the University of Upsala, which was founded by Gustavus Adolphus, contains 80,000 volumes, and many rare manuscripts and other curious objects. A building erected by Gustavus III. at the end of last century, and which contains a vast green-house, and a museum, is a noble edifice with a Doric portico, remarkable for its proportion and beauty. This edifice is situated in the middle of the botanical garden. It serves as an agreeable promenade to the inhabitants of the town. A little beyond it, on the other side of the river Fyrisa, there is a detached hall in which Linnæus lectured and taught the principles of his system. From the time of Linnæus, who passed many years of his life at Upsala, and lies buried in the neighboring cathedral, the Swedes have been distinguished by their love of botany. The botanical cabinet of the university, which was for some time under the direction of Thunberg, the distinguished traveler and naturalist, who deposited in it all the plants he had collected in southern Africa, Japan, and other countries, is exceedingly rich and interesting, and with the garden and conservatory attached, and the able professors employed, it renders Upsala a good school for this pleasing and valuable branch of science. The zoological cabinet, also enriched by the donations of Thunberg, and the mineralogical cabinet, stocked with specimens from all parts, and complete in what regards the minerals of Sweden, a country abounding more than most others in mines, are both of them very valuable collections.

The cathedral, which is the finest ecclesiastical edifice in the kingdom of Sweden, stands opposite the old library of the university. It is in a good Gothic style, and reminded Bishop Heber of Westminster Abbey, to which, he says, it is not unlike. That excellent traveler, however, complains of some injudicious repairs and additions made in modern times, of the removal of all the carved work or tracery from the windows, and of a coating of white plaster, with which the good people of Upsala had disfigured the interior. A church was erected on the spot at the first conversion of the Swedes to Christianity, but the present edifice is a work of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. It is about 260 English feet in length, by 110 in breadth. It contains the tombs of many of the most interesting characters in Swedish history. In a chapel behind the high altar is the tomb of the great Gustavus Vasa, the liberator of his country, whose ashes repose there with those of his wife, while several of his children and grandchildren occupy another tomb close at hand. This chapel has been recently painted in fresco by a distinguished artist who has studied at Rome, and formed his style on the great masters of the Italian school. The appropriate subjects he has treated are derived from the history of the hero who lies beneath, and his adventures among the hardy mountaineers of Dalecarlia, who, from the condition of a helpless fugitive, hiding and working in the mines, raised him to be king of all Sweden in 1523. In another chapel of the cathedral are the sepulchres of the families of Oxenstein and Stenbock. Among the tombs, which are too numerous to describe, there are several adorned with sculpture, the work of native artists—and here

we may mention that the Swedes, whose performances are but little heard of abroad, have for many years cultivated sculpture with great success. The works of Sergel, who was sent to study at Rome and Florence by the unfortunate Gustavus III., at the end of the last century, have been compared, in some instances, to those of Flaxman and Conova.

Linnaeus, the pride of the place, lies interred under a stone near the main door of the cathedral, with his much-loved wife by his side. The stone bears no inscription—not even his name; but at a short distance from it there is a bust of Linnaeus, cut in *alto-relievo* on black marble, and the following inscription engraved on a tablet of beautiful Swedish porphyry:—

“BOTANICORUM PRINCIPE,  
AMICI ET DISCIPULI.  
M.DCC.XCVIII.”

The countenance is very expressive, and this bust is said by his surviving friends to be the best likeness extant of the great naturalist. In a sort of cave adjoining the cathedral they preserve a rude wooden figure of the Scandinavian god Thor, which was one of the idols of the Pagan temple of Old Upsala. At a short distance from the cathedral there is an old church, remarkable for having been the scene of the tragical death of St. Eric, the first Christian king of Sweden, who was murdered there by his subjects for attempting to overthrow their idols, and change the fierce religious faith they professed. Several other objects in or near to Upsala recall the memory of the times of the Runic mythology, and of the customs of a warlike and predatory people. The ruins of the Pagan temple where Thor frowned, with his “mighty hammer” (the very image now preserved in the cathedral,) still exist at Gamla-Upsala, or Old Upsala, and contain the broken image of another god. Near at hand are some rude barrows, or heaps of stones, which, according to tradition, cover the remains of ancient kings and warriors who once held dominion on sea as on land, and carried their victorious arms to the distant corners of the ocean, whence they returned with rich booty to carouse in ale and mead, and enjoy a foretaste of the delights of Walhalla, that paradise in which they would drink out of the skulls of the enemies they had killed in battle. On certain holidays the now peaceful and civilized people of Upsala meet at this spot, and commemorate in potations of excellent ale the festivities of their Pagan ancestors. On the borders of the Mälar Lake, some Runic stones and fragments of buildings are believed to mark the site of Sigtuna, the capital of the dominions of the god Odin, who founded the city himself.

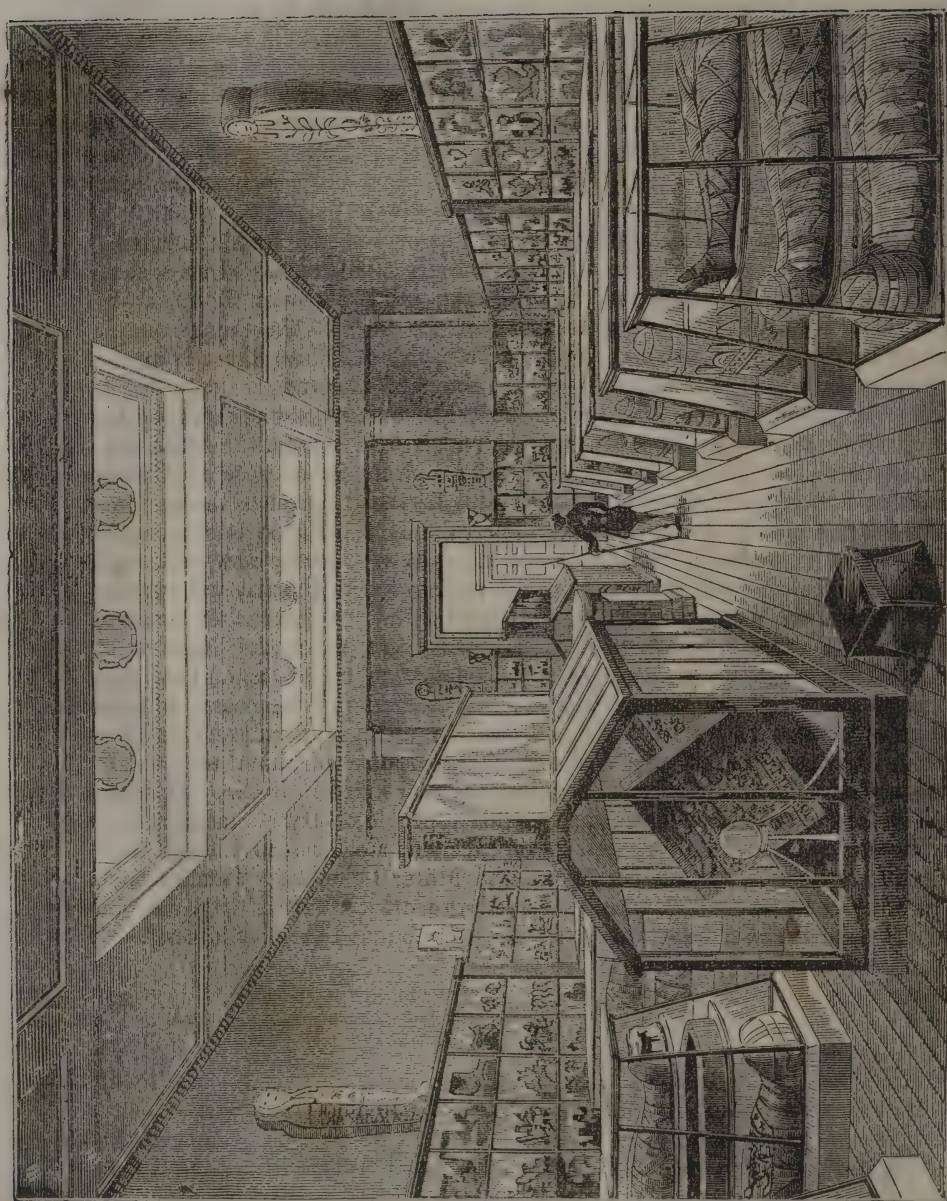
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## EGYPTIAN ROOM, BRITISH MUSEUM.



F the many pursuits which the talents and enterprise of the present day have created, few have been prosecuted with more ardor, or have become more popular, than those connected with the study of the history and manners of the ancient Egyptians. It is true we have long been acquainted with the highly interesting accounts given by early





BRITISH MUSEUM—EGYPTIAN ROOM.

travelers of the pyramids and other monuments of a former age existing in Egypt; but the discoveries in the interior of ancient tombs and temples, and the exertions made in investigating the characters and emblems of their exterior, by which we have attained to a more intimate knowledge of these relics of antiquity, have principally been prosecuted by travelers of the present day.

Since the discoveries made by the French, others have prosecuted the subject with the greatest success, and we are now almost as familiar with the ancient Egyptians as with the ancient Greeks and Romans.

It was customary with the ancient Egyptians to ornament the interior of their temples and tombs (which were generally constructed on a large scale) with representations in painting and sculpture of their religious and political ceremonies, their public processions, and even their domestic customs; and when a person died, his remains were embalmed, or *mummied*, and interred with great solemnity in the tomb of his family, where many of his personal effects were also deposited. The priest, on his death, carried to the grave with him the emblems of his sacerdotal office; the lady, her trinkets and jewelry; the artisan, his tools; and even the child was accompanied in death by those little playthings with which it had amused itself when living.

As the relics of a time which has been in some degree rendered familiar to us by the beautiful writings of the Scriptures, and as serving to elucidate many doubtful passages, and to illustrate the many allusions to the manners of the ancient Egyptians so frequently occurring in those writings, the collections which have been made and forwarded to Europe must claim the attention and prove highly interesting to all who are acquainted with the Bible.

Some of the most important articles in the collection made by the French army having fallen into the hands of the English, they became the nucleus of the splendid collection of Egyptian art which now adorns the national museum.

In the centre of the room are two glass cases, containing in the lower portions the outer cases or coffins of two mummies, which may be seen in another part of the room. These coffins are covered within and without with paintings and hieroglyphics having reference to the deceased; and, being hung upon pivots at the ends, are so placed that both the interior and the whole of the exterior may be seen. In the upper portions of the glass case in the foreground of the engraving are several curious specimens of personal ornaments, as necklaces of gold and precious stones, rings for the finger, seals, and other ornaments, worn as charms or talismans. Many of these are beautifully carved and ornamented, showing the great advance made by the artisans of that early period (about 3000 or 4000 years ago) in manufactures and the arts of design.

The Museum contains several hieroglyphic Papyri manuscripts, and could we trace the characters on them with certainty, we should doubtless find much interesting matter relative to the customs, arts, and state of science among the early Egyptians; but the dissimilarity of the characters in which they are written to those of any known language has for some time kept us in ignorance of their contents. Several attempts have however been made to decipher them; and from the labors of Young, Champollion, Wilkinson, &c., a clue has been found to the characters and lan-



guage in which they are written. Of these there are several sorts, as the Hieroglyphic, Hieratic, and Demotic. Among those in the Museum is one in the Hieratic character which cost £30. This Papyrus has an address upon it, and appears to be a letter sent by a merchant to one of his friends; in which, after having spoken at some length of their respective affairs, he encloses him an account current, well drawn up, and with neatly executed figures. It is supposed that this document, if properly understood, would throw considerable light on the mode of conducting commercial matters in Egypt. Papyri are purchased at very high prices: one about 16 feet in length and 18 inches wide, in the Hieratic character, was purchased by the British Museum for 90 guineas; and even much higher prices have been given for specimens supposed to contain valuable information. As it appears to have been sometimes the case that the early Greeks copied into their own language Papyri written in the Egyptian character, it is evident that a comparison of the copy (with the language of which we are acquainted) with the original Egyptian document, would throw considerable light on the construction and character of the unknown language; and accordingly, much of our present knowledge of the ancient Egyptian languages has been derived through such means;\* and therefore Papyri, which, with even our present imperfect knowledge of their characters, we may discover to contain matters of interest, are valuable for the light which, when we are able to read them with facility, they will probably throw on the manners of their writers; and as the difficulty of procuring them is considerable, for they are of great rarity, their value is increased.

In the glass-cases, seen in the cut, on either side of the central cases, are arranged mummies, showing the different stages of the process: some are merely covered with the first layer of cloth; others are more extensively bandaged and covered with bituminous matter; some are seen enclosed in the first pasteboard or thin wooden case, and others show this first covering enclosed in another of similar construction; while in adjoining cases are shown the outer boxes or coffins in which the body was conveyed to the tomb. One of these mummies is particularly deserving of attention for the richness of the paintings and ornaments with which the cases are adorned, and for the care with which the body has been prepared. It appears to be the body of a royal personage, who officiated as priest of Osiris. Two boxes, or coffins, in which it was enclosed are preserved in another part of the room. The body, which is 5 feet 10 inches in length, is enveloped in a case composed of a thick composition laid on linen, which has been afterwards colored with light blue as a groundwork, on which the various ornaments and hieroglyphics in gold are placed in relief. This is the finest specimen yet discovered of the splendor with which the ancient Egyptians mummied the bodies of their chiefs and priests. It was found in Thebes, and was purchased by the Museum for the sum of 305 guineas.


On the confines of the apartment are arranged the many interesting

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\* The famous "Rosetta stone," in the Egyptian Saloon, British Museum, a stone found at Rosetta in Egypt, with a Greek inscription on one part of it, repeated word for word in another place in the Enchorial character, and similarly in another portion of the stone in Hieroglyphics, derives its celebrity from the great use made of it in obtaining an insight into the meaning of two hitherto mysterious modes of communication, by comparison of the two unknown languages with the Greek.

articles employed by the Egyptians in their domestic concerns, with specimens of their manufactures, models of many of their larger works, and other curious things, found in the tombs, mummy-cases, and other depositories in Thebes, Memphis, &c.

## THE DEATH OF PIERS GAVESTON.

N the edge of the road that leads from Warwick to Coventry, is a knoll now almost covered with trees, which was the scene of one of the most remarkable events in English history. It was on this mount that Piers Gaveston, the favorite of a weak monarch, Edward II., was beheaded. The original name of this place was Blacklow Hill. It is now called either by that name or by that of Gaveston Hill. The murder which was there committed appears to us to present a very appropriate illustration of the fierce and troublesome times, when force was opposed to force, and the conflicts of power had not yet submitted to the sacred dominion of law and justice.

The granting of the Great Charter by King John took place in the year 1215, nearly a century before the execution of Gaveston. The establishment of general freedom, and of legal obligations, in a rude and martial state of society, is generally the work not of a few years, but of whole generations. Though the terms of Magna Charta evidently imply that the great principles of civil liberty were very early developed in England, yet it is evident that the condition of the great body of the people was still slowly improved, and that the crown and nobility were too often involved in disputes for power, which would not admit of any very decided social amelioration. During the long reign of Henry III. the country was distracted by civil contests; and in the succeeding sway of Edward I. the bold and martial character of the prince was communicated to the age in which he lived; and though many wholesale laws were established, the balance of authority and of interests in our constitution was still very imperfectly exhibited. The vices and frivolity of Edward II. again stirred up the contests between the monarch and the barons. The event which we are about to record shows to what daring extremities these contests would sometimes lead.

Previous to the accession of Edward II. to the throne, in the year 1307, he had submitted himself, with the most blind and obstinate confidence, to the counsels of his favorite, Piers Gaveston. This young man was a Gascon by birth. He is represented by historians to have been possessed of singular personal and mental acquirements;—to have been handsome, active, enterprising, and courageous—and superior in spirit and talent to the rough and unpolished barons of the English court. But he was notoriously unprincipled and profligate, and his pride and ambition were altogether of the most extravagant character. During the life of his father, the young Prince Edward had exhibited marks of a vicious and dissolute disposition. He had incurred the displeasure of the king by his irregularities; and his





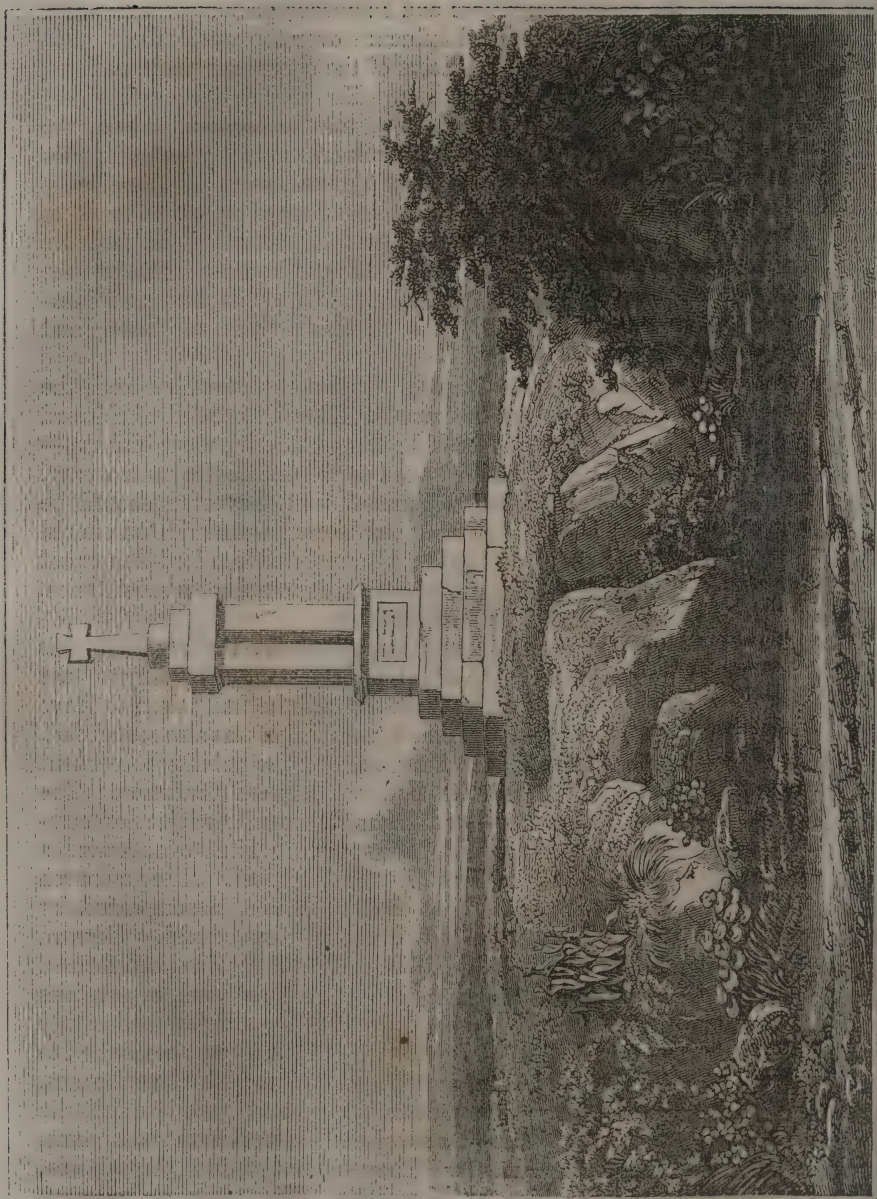
GUY'S CLIFF.

crimes being ascribed to the evil suggestions of Gaveston, the companion of his vices was banished the kingdom. The first act of the accession of Edward II. was to recall his favorite, and to load him with fortune and honors. He made a grant to him of the whole estate belonging to the earldom of Cornwall; and also bestowed upon him a sum of money, which, in the currency of our own days, would appear to exceed the most extravagant donations of the most thoughtless and luxurious princes of antiquity. Gaveston soon acquired an unbounded influence over the weak king. He removed all the high and responsible officers of the court from their stations, and filled their places with his dependants. He procured himself to be appointed Great Chamberlain of the kingdom, and he became, indeed, the sole ruler of the English dominions. The monarch bestowed upon him his own niece in marriage; and consummated the greatness of his favorite by appointing him guardian of the realm during a voyage which he made to France. Had Gaveston possessed the greatest discretion, it is probable that these honors would have excited the utmost jealousy amongst the English nobles. But he was vain and presuming; and his pride and insolence laid the foundation of an enmity, as extensive as it was bitter and unrelenting.

The unbounded power and ostentation of Gaveston soon called forth the fierce and uncompromising spirit of the barons. They demanded of Edward the banishment of his favorite. The king tampered with their claims;—and it soon appeared probable that the sword would decide the controversy. The barons solemnly demanded in parliament that Gaveston should be expelled the kingdom—the clergy pronounced him excommunicated should he continue in the island. The king at length appointed him lord-lieutenant of Ireland, assigned the whole revenue of that kingdom for his subsistence, and attended him to the place of his embarkation.

In a very short period, Edward, being impatient for the return of his favorite, prevailed upon the Pope to absolve Gaveston, according to the wretched superstitions of those days, from the oath he had taken to leave the kingdom forever. The sentence of excommunication was also suspended. At the parliament which followed, the king induced the nobility to consent to Gaveston's recall. But the favorite had not learned prudence. The barons came armed to parliament;—and having a popular subject of complaint against the king, they succeeded in compelling him to authorize a commission for regulating the affairs of the kingdom. The monarch proceeded to the Scottish war against Robert Bruce, accompanied by Gaveston, but his enterprises were not eventually successful. Edward returned to England. The commission which he had authorized had formed many salutary, though, perhaps, extreme and unconstitutional, regulations for the restriction of the royal prerogative. One of the articles particularly insisted upon was the banishment of Gaveston. The king was compelled to yield, and his favorite left the realm, and for some time resided at Bruges, with all the splendor of a sovereign prince. The next year (1312) he ventured to return to York. The barons almost immediately took arms, under pretence of holding tournaments. They suddenly united their forces, and proceeded to attack the king at Newcastle. The unhappy monarch fled with precipitation; and Gaveston secured himself in the fortress of Scarborough, then one of the strongest holds in the kingdom. A detachment of the baronial army immediately invested that post. Gaveston stood





BLACKLOW HILL.

several assaults with great bravery;—but, dreading to exasperate his enemies, he at length capitulated to the Earl of Pembroke, on condition of being kept in safe custody, while the barons should deliberate on the disposal of his person; and if he should not agree to their terms, that he should be placed in the same posture of defence which he resigned. The barons in authority pledged themselves to this treaty, on pain of forfeiting all their possessions. The Earl of Pembroke proposed to convey his prisoner to his own castle at Wallingford, but left him, during one night, at Deddington Castle, near Banbury. Guy, Earl of Warwick, the implacable enemy of Gaveston, immediately seized upon his person. He bore him in triumph to Warwick Castle, where the Earls of Lancaster, Hertford, and Arundel, repaired to hold a consultation about their prisoner. His fate was speedily decided. He was dragged to Blacklow Hill, about two miles from Warwick Castle, where he was beheaded amidst the scorn and reproach of his implacable and perfidious enemies.

On the top of Blacklow Hill there has for some time been a rude stone, on which the name of Gaveston, and the date of his execution, are inscribed. A few years ago, the possessor of Guy's Cliff, an adjoining mansion, distinguished for its picturesque situation and romantic grounds, erected the cross which is represented on the opposite page. It bears the following inscription:—

IN THE HOLLOW OF THIS ROCK  
WAS BEHEADED,  
ON THE 1ST DAY OF JULY, 1312,  
BY BARONS LAWLESS AS HIMSELF,  
PIERS GAVESTON, EARL OF CORNWALL;  
THE MINION OF A HATEFUL KING,  
IN LIFE AND DEATH,  
MEMORABLE INSTANCE OF MISRULE.

As we have here sat, looking with delight upon the beautiful prospect which this summit presents, we could not avoid contrasting the peacefulness and the fertility that were spread around, with the wild appearance that the same spot must have presented at the period of lawless violence which we have described. Beneath our feet the Avon was gliding in tranquillity and loveliness, pursuing its silent course through plenteous fields, or by elegant villas—now ornamenting the mansion of the noble, and now bestowing its beauty upon the cottage of the peasant. When Gaveston fell, it flowed amongst sterile cliffs, or through barren plains—for equal laws had not then bestowed upon industry the blessing of security;—the laborer worked for a severe task-master, and the possessions of the yeomen were under the control of a tyrannical lord. In the distant prospect we saw the lofty towers of Warwick Castle rising above the woods in ancient magnificence. When Gaveston perished, they were the scenes of many a midnight murder, and many an ignominious torture. Here had been the rude pomp, the fearful counsels, and the tumultuous passions, of the feudal days. The pride, and the devices, and the ambition of those times were now only “to point a moral, or adorn a tale.” The towers of antique splendor indeed remained;—but they were associated with the beauties of modern adornment; and the hand of taste had arrested the slow ravages of time, to preserve those memorials of past generations, whose records should teach us how much we have gained in intelligence and in happiness.

The first engraving represents the beautiful mansion of Guy's Cliff, which possesses many attractions for the curiosity of the traveler.



## WESTMINSTER BRIDGE.



**A** CENTURY ago, not one of the several bridges existed that now span the Thames at London. There was then, in fact, no bridge over the river at all, with the exception of that which stood where the present London bridge is now erected. It was not until the year 1735, that Parliament, on the petition of the inhabitants of Westminster, passed an act for the building of a second bridge. Even then this improvement was not secured without great difficulty; a strenuous opposition being made to it by the Company of Watermen, the society called the West-Country Bargemen, the Borough of Southwark, and the City of London, all of which parties conceived themselves interested in forcing everybody who wanted to cross from one side of the water to the other, either to go round by London bridge, or to make the passage in a boat. Fortunately, however, it was determined that the convenience of the whole population should not be sacrificed, nor their personal safety placed in jeopardy, on this monstrous demand of a few individuals.

On the 13th of September, 1738, the preparations for the building of the bridge were begun, by the driving of the first pile for its foundation, in the presence of a vast number of spectators. On the 29th of January following, the first stone of one of the two central piers, that next the west side, was laid by the Earl of Pembroke. The whole structure is built of stone, and principally of Portland block stones, of which few are less than a ton in weight, while many are two or three, and some even four or five tons. There are fourteen piers in all, besides the two abutments, and consequently fifteen arches. They are semicircular in form, and the span of that in the middle is seventy-six feet; the others gradually decrease in width; the sixth from the centre on each side being only fifty-two feet, and the two next the abutments only twenty-five each. The whole length of the bridge is 1223 feet; and the clear water-way under the arches is 870 feet. The road over it is forty-four feet in breadth; the foot-paths on each side included. In the beginning of 1747, when it was nearly completed, one of the piers sank so much as to determine the commissioners to have it pulled down and rebuilt; and this was the only circumstance by which the work was materially retarded. It was at last brought to a conclusion on the 10th of November that year; when the new bridge was formally opened by a procession passing over it. The work cost in all £389,500, which was granted for the purpose in successive years by Parliament. Maitland states that the value of £40,000 is computed to be always under water in stone and other materials; and according to other authorities the whole quantity of stone used in this bridge is asserted to have been nearly double that employed in St. Paul's Cathedral.



WESTMINSTER BRIDGE.



## CAVE OF ST. ROSALIA.

**A**LITTLE to the west of Palermo, and nearly at the summit of the lofty and rugged Monte Pellegrino, there is a natural grotto or cave of considerable extent. Hamilcar Barcas, whose Carthaginian soldiers are said to have made a barrack room of the cave, long resisted the Romans on this isolated and almost inaccessible height; but it is not from these circumstances that the grotto is dear and sacred to the Sicilians. The mouth of the cave no longer opens on the mountain's side, but is masked and enclosed by a curious church they have built round it. Crossing this church, you enter a low, narrow vault under the rocks—cold and gloomy in the extreme, where silence is never broken, except by the low whisperings of the devotees, or the echoes of the service in the church. Nearly at the extremity of the cavern there is a beautiful young maiden in a reclining posture, with her half-closed eyes fixed on the cross. It is only a statue; but in the dim obscurity, partially broken by the lights from some small silver lamps, it looks, at a certain distance, like a human being in the act of expiring, with beatific visions of a brighter and happier world than this. Even on a nearer approach, when the illusion vanishes, the effect of this exquisite piece of workmanship is exceedingly touching. The delicate beauty and youth of the countenance, with its mingled expression of simplicity, resignation and devotion—the flowing lines of the body and limbs, with their soft and perfect repose, quite captivate the beholder, and almost excuse the idolatry of which the statue is the object. The head and hands are cut in the finest Parian marble; the rest of the figure is of bronze, gilt, appearing as if covered with a robe of beaten gold. Many valuable jewels testify the devotion of successive ages.

The figure represents Santa Rosalia, the patroness saint of Palermo, who is believed to have lived and died “in these deep solitudes and awful cells.” According to the legend, this beautiful virgin was niece to King William the Good, a prince of the Norman line, who reigned in Sicily from A. D. 1150 to 1154, and who was succeeded by his son, surnamed William the Bad, under whom the island became the scene of civil wars and all kinds of iniquities. Even from infancy, the young princess showed symptoms of sanctity; and in the sixteenth year of her age, seeing the wickedness of the world, she deserted it altogether, and retired to the solitary mountains. When she disappeared (in 1159) the people thought she had been taken up to heaven, deeming her soul too pure, and her body too beautiful, to be subjected to the ordinary processes of mortality. Tradition states that she at first retired to a mountain cave at a considerable distance; but being disturbed in that retreat, she wandered to Monte Pellegrino, and discovering this grotto, fixed her residence here as a less accessible place.

Nothing more was heard of her till her bones were found, nearly 500 years after her disappearance, on the very spot where her statue now reposes. A miracle was, of course, connected with their discovery. In



DEAN BRIDGE—EDINBURGH.



the year 1624 Palermo was visited by a dreadful plague, which no human means could moderate; a holy man had a vision, and he told the people that the saint's bones were lying unhonored in a cave near the top of Monte Pellegrino; that if they were taken up with due reverence, and carried in procession round the walls of the city three several times, the plague would immediately cease. A deputation was sent to the mountain—the bones were found in the place indicated—the processions were performed—the people were cured, and the fair Rosalia was elevated to the rank of tutelar saint of Palermo. The bones, preserved in a silver box, curiously wrought and enriched with jewels, were deposited in the ancient cathedral of the city; but proper care was taken of the holy grotto, and a magnificent causeway, and then a fine road, in terraces, rising above each other, and very properly called *La Scala*, (the stairs,) were made to lead to it, over the rugged heights and along the precipices of the mountain. Besides the church, a residence was built for a few officiating priests, who are bound to be constantly on the spot to celebrate mass, show the cave, and receive the offerings of pilgrims; and in process of time a small *taverna*, or house of entertainment, arose in the vicinity, to afford refreshment to the numerous visitors, who generally require it after their toilsome ascent. The church, the cave, the shrine, are seldom found without kneeling devotees. At certain seasons the sailors and poor people from Palermo, and the peasantry from the neighboring country, flock hither in numerous troops, and, according to a practice which is general at such places in Italy and Sicily, after they have performed their devotions they give themselves up to enjoyment—to feasting and dancing for the rest of the day. The view from Monte Pellegrino is at once cheerful, diversified and sublime, extensive and beautiful in its details. The fair city of Palermo, with its suburbs, *La Bagaria* and *Il Colle*, full of villas and gardens, is close under the eye; the upper sides of Mount Etna, though at the distance of nearly the whole length of the island, are visible; and looking seaward, most of the Lipari islands, with the ever-smoking cone of Stromboli, are discovered.

The festival of Santa Rosalia is the most splendid religious pageant in Sicily, and, according to the Sicilians, whose pride and boast it is, the finest in the world. It is held annually at Palermo, in the glowing month of July, and lasts five days—the anniversaries of the finding of the bones, their transfer from the cave to the cathedral, and three processions round the walls of the city. People repair to it from all parts of the island, from the neighboring coasts of Calabria, and (in smaller numbers, which have been increased since the establishment of steam packets) even from the city of Naples. A detailed account would occupy some pages; but the principal features of the festival are these: a lofty car of an exceedingly elegant form, and richly ornamented, is surmounted at more than the height of sixty feet, by a statue of the saint, in silver, and considerably larger than life. The car is about sixty-five feet long, and thirty feet broad. On seats which rise above each other like stairs, a numerous orchestra and vocal performers are disposed in rows and in full court dress. This enormous vehicle is dragged slowly through the centre of the town by fifty white oxen. It stops every fifty or sixty yards, and at each pause the music, which is generally admirable, fills the summer air, which is otherwise sweetened by incense, and the breath of innumerable flowers, that are suspended to the car or scattered before its path. In the evenings the

Cassaro or principal street, and the long and beautiful promenade of the Marina, are splendidly illuminated, and fireworks on a very extensive scale are let off. In these arts the Palermitans particularly excel. Horse races are added to the amusements. On the fourth evening the interior of the fine old cathedral is filled with one blaze of light; the silver lamps, the wax torches, the candelabra, the mirrors, the rich hanging draperies of gold and silver tissue, and all other accessories, being arranged with admirable taste and effect. The festival concludes on the fifth day with a procession, in which the effigies of all the saints in Palermo are carried, amidst a deafening noise of drums, trumpets and patereroes. A part of the countless assemblage of people file off from the Marina, and take the steep road of Monte Pellegrino to the grotto of Santa Rosalia.

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## FESTIVAL OF ST. ROSALIA.

**H**OUEL, from whose work on Sicily the engraving is taken, minutely describes the festival as he witnessed it in 1776; and after a lapse of 75 years—a period so fertile in alterations of national character,—his description, with allowances for variations in the accessories, may be taken as a description of the festival, as celebrated at the present day. “The festival,” says Malte Brun, “attracts to Palermo nearly a fourth part of the population of the island, and costs the municipality about 60,000 ducats. The interest that the Palermitans of all ranks and of all ages take in the vain show, the luxury that prevails, and the importance attached to trifles, seem to indicate that the blood of the ancient Greeks, who were so devoted to ceremonies and religious festivals, flows still in the veins of the Sicilian people.”

The festival is celebrated in the month of July, and lasts five days. The weather is most usually delightful, for though the heat is great during the day, the evenings and nights afford the inhabitants and visitors of Palermo ample opportunity to enjoy the promenades, illuminations and fireworks. Rain, that great enemy of processions and fetes, seldom disturbs the festival of Santa Rosalia.

On the first day, the car, the construction of which used to be an annual source of intense solicitude, and which was always built after a new model, is brought out in grand procession. It is generally a huge machine, about eighty feet in height, and carries a great number of musicians—the orchestra of the car. Above the orchestra is placed a gigantic statue of Santa Rosalia, of massive silver, magnificently clothed. The car is decorated with shrubs and flowers, and is drawn by a long string of mules, or white oxen.

At an appointed signal the procession sets forward, moving slowly, amid the shoutings of the populace. Entering the town, it traverses the spacious Cassaro, the main street of Palermo, the balconies and windows of every house being crowded by well-dressed and excited gazers. As the procession does not take place till the afternoon, evening closes in before it is






CAVE OF SANTA ROSALIA.

well over; and then a new scene commences. The principal streets are brilliantly illuminated; fireworks on an extensive scale are exhibited; and the whole populace are out enjoying themselves till two or three o'clock in the morning. "For," says Houel, "it is not with fastings, austerities, and mortifications that the Sicilians honor the Saint, but with songs, fireworks, and rejoicings of every kind."

On the second day of the festival there are horse-races. The procession of the car, illuminations, and fireworks are the main features of the amusement of each afternoon and evening; but there are also some variations in each. The horse-races are repeated on three or four days. There is usually an aquatic excursion, and abundant firing of cannon; and on the fourth evening the cathedral is lighted up with many thousand wax-tapers, adorned with flowers, and crowded with people. On the last day of the festival the procession of the car is more than usually splendid. All the priests and monks in Palermo join in it, bearing the images of the saints from every church; and then, with "fountains of fire," illuminations, and universal rejoicings, closes a festival which the Sicilians regard as the most magnificent in the world.

## PASS OF THE GEMMI—BATHS OF LEUK.

 NE of the principal passes in that great chain of the Alps, which, branching off to the north-east from Mont Blanc, is separated from the main chain by the valley of the Rhone till it unites with it again near the St. Gothard, is the pass over the Gemmi. This mountain is so called from the Latin word Gemini, or twins, an appellation very applicable to its peculiar appearance at the summit, which consists of two precisely similar peaks. The view from thence to the south extends over the valley of the Rhone into Piedmont, its principal feature being Monte Rosa, a mountain second only to Mont Blanc among the mountains of Europe. To the west rise the peaks of Strubel and Razli, whence descend two enormous glaciers which pour their torrents into the lake of Daube, which is at the very summit of the Gemmi Pass. This lake is about a mile and a half in length, and half that in width, and is frozen during eight months of the year; but its most remarkable characteristic is, that though fed by several considerable streams from the annual melting of the snow and ice, it has no visible outlet. The probability is, that there exists some subterranean channel which conveys the water into the Dala, which afterwards joins the Rhone. This lake is situated about 7400 feet above the level of the sea.

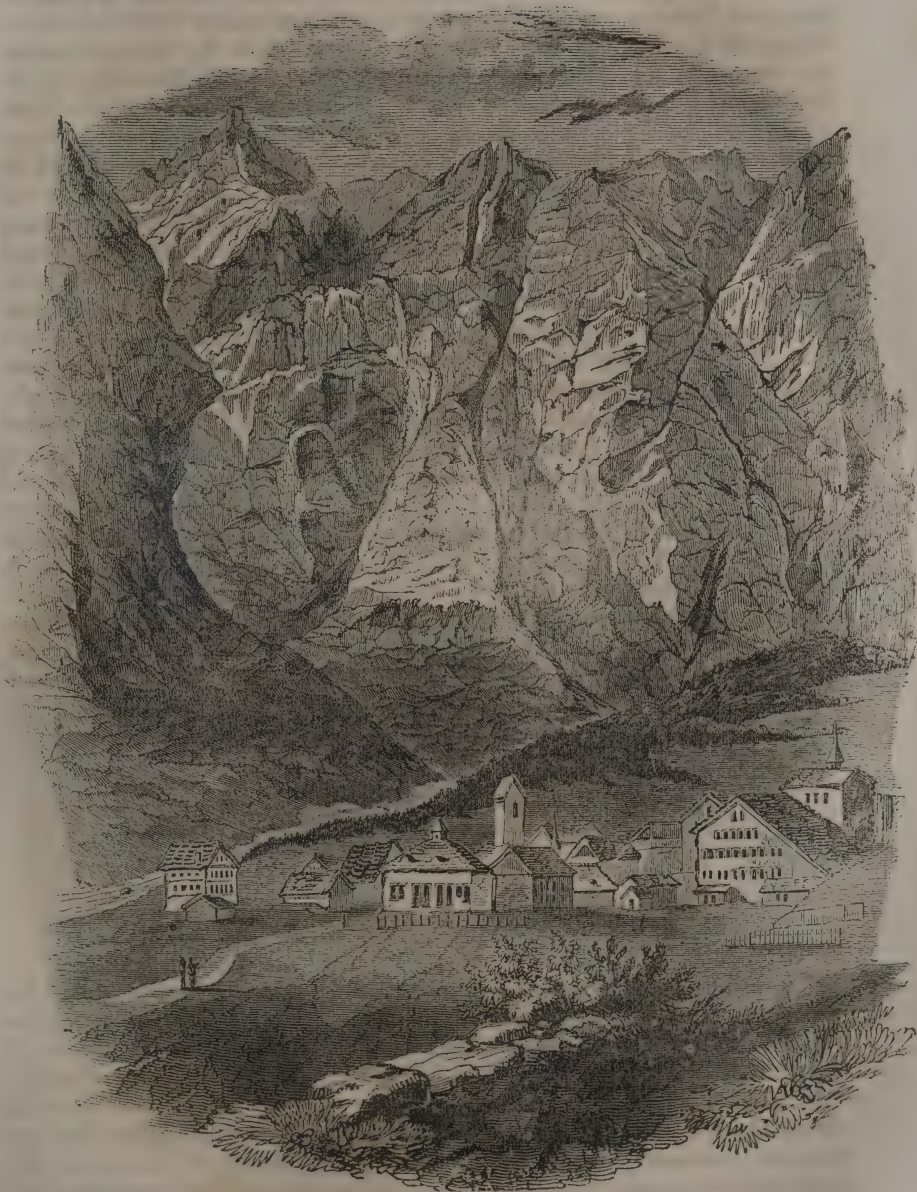
The Gemmi is chiefly celebrated for the wonderful road which leads across it from Kanderstag in the canton of Berne, to the baths of Leuk (or Loueche) in the Haut Valais. The southern side of the mountain, as is the case throughout the Alps, is the steepest and most inaccessible, and in this direction presents a perpendicular precipice of nearly 3000 feet. A road practicable for pedestrians and mules, was, in 1741, constructed by some Tyrolese workmen: it is cut throughout in the solid rock, and is con



tinued in a perpetual zigzag from top to bottom. From the side of Leuk, the traveler, on preparing for the ascent, can perceive no indication whatever of the road, and sees nothing but a perpendicular wall of rock, to all appearance quite impassable. (A faint line given in the drawing shows the direction of the route, but in reality it is totally imperceptible.) Though only practicable for mules, this road is incontestably a superior work to most of the passes where carriages can be used; and although cut out of the bare face of the rock, there is not the slightest danger to be apprehended; for a rough, but not the less useful, parapet of large stones, nearly breast high, prevents the possibility of an accident. From the baths of Leuk to the summit of the pass is a distance of about two hours' walk, and thence to the village of Kanderstag about three and a half more.

The baths of Leuk are much celebrated in Switzerland for their efficacy in cutaneous diseases, and the water, when taken internally, is said to be very effective in curing disorders of the stomach. There are upwards of a dozen sources, the principal of which is consecrated (the Valis being a Catholic Canton) to St. Laurence, whose image is placed immediately over the source, whence the hot water flows in two channels, one to supply the baths, the other for the use of the villagers, who are to be seen kneeling before the stream washing linen. The water is clear, without any strong flavor, but possessing a slight smell of sulphur. The temperature is about 41° of Réaumur. Almost everything is here constructed of fir, with which the sides of the mountains are clothed; and at the height of nearly 5000 feet above the sea, in an almost inaccessible valley, where not even corn can grow, and which has more than once suffered from avalanches, but few luxuries can be introduced. A person commencing a course of bathing usually begins with half an hour a day, but gradually increases the dose till he arrives at eight hours, and then leaves off in the same proportion.

The following extract from the journal of a pedestrian traveler contains an account of the Gemmi, the baths of Leuk, and of the ladder-road to the village of Albinen:—"At nine o'clock, on a fine morning in September, I arrived at Kanderstag, and commenced the ascent of the Gemmi Pass, which for some way was very steep, but at length I emerged from a narrow gorge into an open valley, about 6300 feet above the sea, where there was already some snow, which, of course, as the road ascended, increased in depth. Having passed some *châlets* (or mountain sheds), I perceived on the left the gloomy valley of Gastera, extending to the foot of Mont Altels, and further on passed over a place where the effects of an avalanche in 1782 were still distinctly visible. I next threaded my way among the débris of a mountain, which had, probably, fallen some centuries before,—another species of the awful devastations to which these Alpine regions are liable. I soon reached the Schwarrenbach, a solitary habitation, used only during summer, where I had to pay a small toll of half a batzen, or about three farthings, for the use of the road. I did not at the time, however, comprehend why this toll was demanded; for, having no guide, and the snow, owing to a late fall, being now knee-deep, the road was quite invisible, and I made out my route entirely by the map. This dismal place is the scene chosen by Werner in his '*Le 24 Février*.' After leaving this wretched place I came upon the lake of Daube, and as, when that was passed, I was evidently drawing near to the ridge of the Gemmi,




PASS OF THE GEMMI—BATHS OF LEUK.



I began to look out for the place to descend. This place, after some little difficulty, I found; and I then at once perceived why the toll had been demanded, the whole path being made by blasting, and the marks of it being everywhere visible. Indeed, descent was quite out of the question anywhere else, for the southern side of the mountain was quite perpendicular, and I looked straight down from a height of nearly 3000 feet on the village of Leuk; while along the valley in which it lay the eye tracked the course of the Dala, which rushed impetuously into the valley of the Rhone, on the further side of which the eternal snows of Monte Rosa terminated the view. The descent, once begun, was very rapid. I found a run down the declivity easier than a walk, and the mountain-staff, or alpenstock, which I carried, rendered the turning at every zigzag safe and easy. I never saw such prodigious icicles as on this occasion; they hung from every projection; many, close to which I passed, were much longer than my own height, and some that I saw at a distance must have been at least twenty feet long. On a projecting crag I observed a ragged pine growing somewhat horizontally and leaning over the precipice. It is said that a Valaisan once ascended this tree, and carried away its topmost bough. In this venturesome attempt he must have been suspended at a height of at least 2000 feet above the valley below. When I had nearly arrived at the bottom of the precipice, I observed on one side of a steep gorge in the side of the rock a sort of sentry-box hollowed out of the rock, and apparently inaccessible. This, I was afterwards informed, was the station of a watchman, placed there to prevent smuggling between the two cantons of Berne and Valais, and to watch sheep-stealers, who, by a thorough knowledge of the track, contrived to make their way up the mountain by a narrow rough gorge on one side of the regular road. The watchman cannot be seen by those who descend the gorge, till it is too late to retreat, and the offenders are thus detected. When I reached the foot of the pass, and looked back, I could not perceive the least traces of the road by which I had descended, and it seemed quite astonishing to me that I ever got down at all."

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## THE STREETS OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

UR engraving exhibits one or two of the peculiarities presented by the streets of Constantinople. Almost all the streets of this interesting metropolis are narrow and winding, and are destitute of those dazzling attractions which startle Orientals when they visit London. Instead of spacious thoroughfares, with the windows of shops set out with wares of all kinds, while passengers on foot and vehicles of every description are incessantly passing and repassing, the streets of Constantinople, with but little exception, are silent and almost deserted-looking during the day; and though towards evening they exhibit a more animated aspect, as the inhabitants come out to pass on to the coffee-houses, or to smoke their pipes in some favorite spot, there is but little of that kind of character which realizes to us the poet's description of the "sweet security of

STREET SCENE--CONSTANTINOPLE.





streets." The only sort of windows presented by the houses towards the streets are those projections represented in the engraving, containing little windows latticed and closed; and many of the houses have no windows at all towards the streets, but only a low, narrow, dingy door. Mr. McFarlane, who was in Constantinople in 1828 (when, however, political causes had rendered the city more than usually dull and deserted,) thus alludes to these windows in describing a walk through some of the streets:—"I walked up one street and down another; for wherever chance led me I was sure to find novelty and interest of some sort. Except what seems the most considerable street in the city—a street that traverses nearly its whole length, and, tolerably broad and airy, runs in a slightly diverging line from the north-western extremity of the Hippodrome to the gate of Adrianople—all seemed gloomy and depopulated. I passed through several large empty spaces in the very heart of the town, where houses had been burned down, and not rebuilt; and even in other quarters exempt from the devastation of fire, where the dark red-painted dwellings of the Turks stood close around me, so rarely was a human being seen, so uninterrupted the silence, that I could scarcely believe myself in the capital of a vast empire—in splendid Stamboul—of whose overflowing population I had so often read. Some half dozen of times, perhaps, in the course of my musing peregrination, my observations were enlivened by the sight of sundry black eyes that (wondering, no doubt, at what I could be doing in those unfrequented quarters) were seen peeping through their white *yas maks*, and the thick lattices (so appropriately denominated in French *jalousies*) that shut up every *shah nishin* of a Turk's house. Once or twice my ears were greeted with a titter from my concealed observers; pleasant sounds—as they showed, at least, that all gaiety had not fled from the place. Another refreshing relief, the charm of which I still recal with delight, was to catch through the gloomy avenue of one of the deserted streets at the back of the town a view of the broad blue basin of the Propontis, of the lovely Princes' Islands, of the distant mountains of Nicomedia, and of the still more remote and sublime heights of the Bithynian Olympus, all shining gay and bright in the beams of the glorious sun."

Though Mr. McFarlane saw Constantinople when it was under the influence of depressing circumstances, the silence of the streets is a general description. Our own engraving seems to contradict this, for it exhibits a crowd of figures, as if the narrow street was thronged; but the *time* is evening, when the middling and poorer classes have a strong inducement to do what all classes avoid as much as possible—to *walk* the streets; and the door exhibited in the fore-ground of the engraving is the door of a coffee-house. "All the life and activity of the interior of the city is concentrated in the bazaars, or *bezestines*. These are long, wide corridors, communicating with each other mostly in an irregular and striking manner. Their side walls are built of stone, and they are covered in with stone arches, or successions of domes, through which a subdued light is admitted. The dealers are separated by nations, or religions, or by trades."

Another of the peculiarities of the streets of Constantinople, represented in our engraving, is the dogs—those pests of all Mohammedan towns. Mohammedanism proscribes dogs as unclean. Hence, although they are exceedingly numerous in towns, they are not attached to particular houses, or belong to particular persons. They live in the streets and open places,

and subsist upon offal, with some uncertain assistance from the charity of individuals. "In large towns," says a note in the Pictorial Bible, "where there is much activity and intercourse, the dogs do not generally offer any molestation to any person in the day time, or only to persons whom they detect by the scent or costume to be decided foreigners; but at night it is very hazardous to pass the streets, and few like to do so alone, and never without being properly armed. When two persons go together, both armed with strong sticks, they are seldom molested. One person alone, and particularly if unarmed, would be in danger of being seriously injured, if not torn to pieces, unless assistance came, as the attack of one dog would serve as a signal to bring others in great numbers to the assault. In small towns and villages seldom visited by strangers, the dogs know the inhabitants, and do not molest them, unless perhaps when any one of them should happen to stir abroad at night; but a stranger of any description often dares not approach such places even by day, unless under the conduct of an inhabitant."

The dogs of Constantinople are somewhat more under control, and are not at all dangerous to strangers, owing to the perpetual influx of foreigners of all descriptions, and the constant intercourse. Still they are hungry and savage enough to annoy a European, if not by their attack, at least by their presence. "We hardly met a soul on our way up," says Mr. McFarlane, describing the landing in Constantinople, "but swarms of starving, mangy dogs perambulated the silent streets, giving me an opportunity, on my first arrival, to make the acquaintance of this pest of the Ottoman capital." Even when dogs are without individual masters they will frequent the abodes of man. They are found in this half-wild state at Lisbon and Constantinople, and other cities of the East. They are driven as unclean from the houses of the Mohammedans, and yet the same people protect them when they are roaming about their dwellings. The dog of the Seven Sleepers, according to a tale of the Koran, is the only quadruped admitted into heaven, but the people of the East have more substantial reasons for patronizing those half-wild dogs than they find in the legends of their faith. Volney, in his Travels, describes the dogs of Turkey and its dependencies as particularly useful in clearing the streets of the garbage and carrion which would otherwise become the cause of pestilence and death. It is to this circumstance that the powerful but somewhat revolting description of Lord Byron refers in the poem of the Siege of Corinth:—

"I saw the lean dogs beneath the wall  
Hold o'er the dead their carnival,  
Gorging and growling o'er carcass and limb,  
They were too busy to bark at him."

## PILGRIMAGE TO MARIAZELL.

**M**ARIAZELL is a small town in the Austrian Province of Styria, and situated in the most romantic part of that mountainous country. A shrine and an ancient picture of the Virgin Mary, which is believed to be endowed with miraculous qualities, have given importance to the place, and annually attracted many thousands of pilgrims



ever since the finding of the picture in the eighth or ninth century down to our own days. These devotees wend over moor and mountain, not merely from all corners of Upper and Lower Styria, but from Carinthia; from Moravia and Silesia; from the Tyrol; from Bohemia; from Vienna, the capital; and from many other distant points of the Austrian empire.

The annual pilgrimage from Vienna is regulated by the government itself, which fixes the day of its departure always in the hot months of July or August. An Imperial proclamation to this effect, and enjoining the pilgrims to pray before the shrine of the Virgin for the prosperity of the House of Hapsburg, is stuck up on the great gate of St. Stephen's. On the appointed day the devotees assemble in that Gothic cathedral at earliest dawn; at four o'clock in the morning high mass is performed, and then the long, picturesque line, consisting of all ages and of both sexes, separated into divisions by religious banners and crucifixes, begins its toilsome march towards the rugged mountains of Styria; the pilgrims chanting hymns as they go, and having their weary steps cheered from time to time by the music of trumpets and kettle-drums that are scattered along the line, at the head of the several divisions.

A traveler, who witnessed the scene in the year 1822, says, that the procession which he saw leave Vienna consisted of nearly 3,000 persons, who were all of the poorer classes. Females predominated, and among the young women, who were numerous, he observed many who were exceedingly pretty, and looked very graceful in their pilgrim-weeds. Almost all of them were barefooted; they carried long staves entwined with flowers, and wore, for the most part, straw bonnets with enormous brims, to protect their faces from the scorching rays of the sun. This female equipment varies very much in the different provinces, each of which has its distinctive costume; and this circumstance adds to the picturesqueness of the scene when pilgrimages from different parts meet at their common centre—the shrine of Mariazell.

The Vienna pilgrims generally return home on the fourth day after their departure. From whatever place they may come the pilgrims always ascend the rough mountain of Mariazell singing hymns to the Virgin; here the young women, taking off their straw hats or white linen caps, let their hair flow in loose disorder over their shoulders; and the sturdier pilgrims, to increase their penance, and the natural difficulties of the way, drag huge heavy wooden crosses after them up the steep ascent. On gaining the summit of the mountain, and the sight of the gloomy, antique church, the pilgrims all fall prostrate, and raise a universal and long-continued shout; after which they cross themselves, rise, and approach the shrine slowly and reverentially, singing as if with one voice, and making the mountains reëcho with their solemn and harmonious notes. The shrine is in a small and dark chapel in the very centre of the gloomy church; the chapel is dimly lighted by a single lamp, the ray of which is eclipsed by the glare of precious stones and metals that have been lavished there by the devotion or superstition of many succeeding generations. A massy silver railing guards the entrance to the shrine, and in front of this costly fence the crowded votaries kneel, and pray to a picture which they can scarcely see. In the rear of the chapel there is a stone image of the Virgin Mary, supported on a detached stone pillar. At most seasons this pillar is surrounded by a double circle of pilgrims; the inner one consisting of females, all on



PILGRIMAGE TO MARIAZZELL.



their knees—the outer circle only of men, leaning on their long staves. At the evening hour, which in Catholic countries is sacred to the Virgin—at the pensive, twilight *Ave Maria*, the scenes in the church are romantic and picturesque.

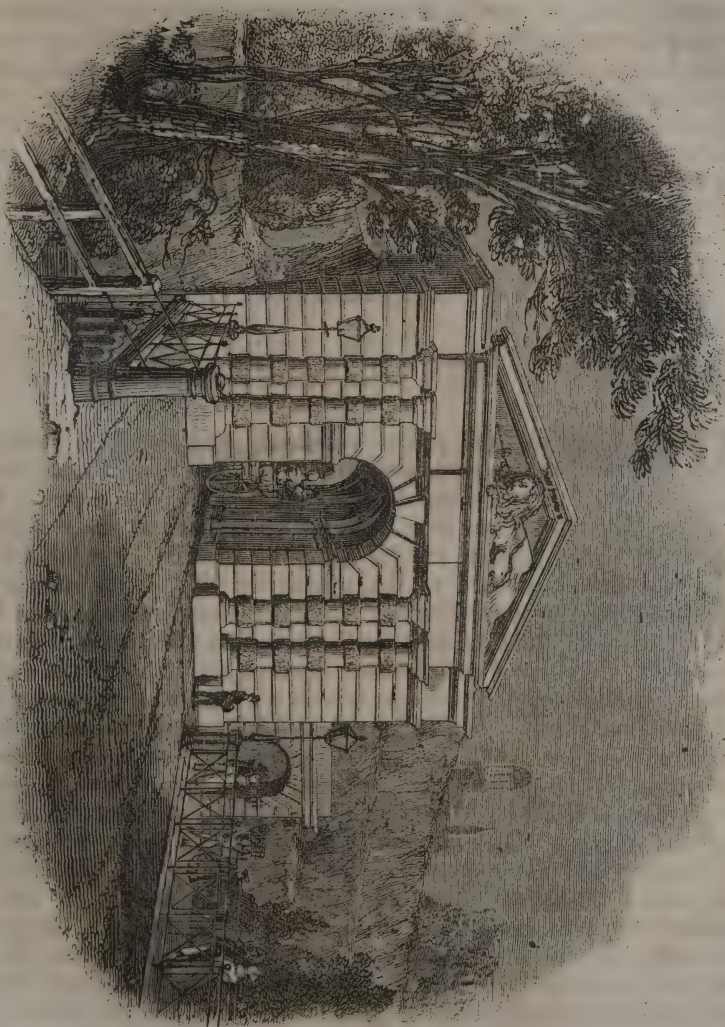
As Mr. Russel entered the church, “the sun was just going down behind the bare precipices of the neighboring mountains, and the pilgrims were arranged to await the signal to chant the *Ave Maria*. The isle in which they were assembled was cold and sombre; the weak rays of light passing through the stained glass of a large Gothic window, covered them with a hundred soft and varied tints, and not a whisper disturbed the solemn silence, except the indistinct murmur of prayer from the holy chapel. At length the sun disappeared, and the bells gave the signal for the evening service. The young women in the inner part of the circle immediately began to move slowly round the pillar on their knees, singing, with voices in which there was much natural harmony, a hymn to the Virgin; while the men stood still, taking up the burden at the end of every stanza, and bending to the earth before the sacred image.”

When the church service terminates, other scenes not less romantic take place in the neighboring woods. Although the town of Mariazell, which owes its existence to the favorite shrine, is composed almost entirely of inns and ale-houses for the accommodation of pilgrims, who come in larger or smaller bodies from all parts, and at all seasons of the year, except when the deep snows render the mountains impassable; and although they make use of beds somewhat similar in dimensions to the famed bed of Ware, and capable of holding a dozen persons, there is not in-door room enough for all at the periods of great pilgrimages. Motives of economy also, and even of enjoyment in the fine warm nights of summer, may induce some to prefer the open air to the crowded hostels of the town: but, at all events, at that season hundreds, and often thousands, of the pilgrims bivouac in separate parties in the woods, where, after eating their suppers, they pass the greater part of the night in singing, one party replying to the chorus of another, and then another and another succeeding in distant and soft harmony. Among a people who almost universally cultivate music, and sing in parts or in chorus with taste and precision, the effect of this nocturnal concert of many voices may be easily imagined. At the earliest dawn of day, parties drawn out in long file, and marching two by two, begin to emerge from the woods and from the town; and at times go on increasing, until the mountain sides and the valley beneath seem dotted all over with the white caps and the white dresses of the female pilgrims, who, come whence they may, always greatly exceed the men in number.

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## PORTSEA.

**P**ORTSMOUTH and Portsea are inclosed by strong fortifications, and the sea coast on each side of the mouth of the harbor is lined with batteries. The fortifications extend in a semicircle round the town on the land side, forming a fine terrace, in some parts shaded with trees, and affording a variety of extensive and beautiful views. There are



LION GATE—PORSEUS.



several grand entrance gateways. The dockyard is in Portsea: it is the largest in the kingdom. It has a sea wharf wall, which extends along the shore of the harbor 3,500 feet; the mean breadth of the dockyard is about 2,000 feet, and it covers upwards of 100 acres. It is entered from the town by a gateway, and may be visited by strangers without any formal introduction. The great basin has its entrance in the centre of the wharf wall; it is two acres and a half in area, 380 feet in length, and 260 feet in breadth; four dry docks open into this basin, and on each side is another dry dock, all capable of receiving first-class ships. Besides these, there is a double dock for frigates. There are also six building slips, two of which are capable of receiving the largest vessels. The dockyard contains a royal naval college, a handsome building for a school of naval architecture, the Port Admiral's house, ranges of storehouses and workshops for almost every article required in ship-building, a smithy, an iron and a copper mill, a copper refinery, and wood mills, where every article of turnery requisite for naval purposes is made.

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## THE COLOSSEUM.

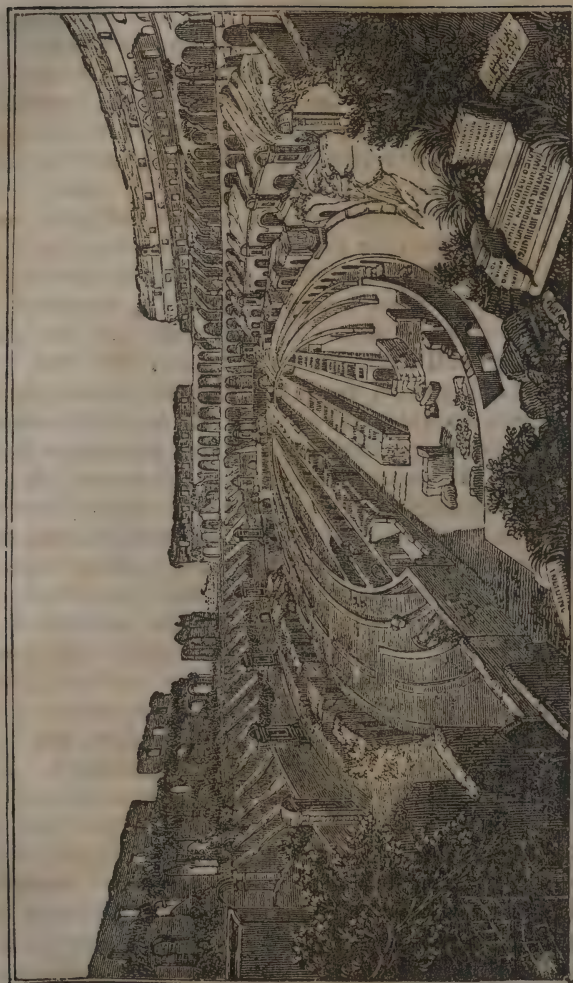
**W**HEN the imperial power was firmly established at Rome, the sports of the amphitheatre were conducted upon a scale to which the Consuls of the republic had scarcely dared to aspire. Caligula, on his birth-day, gave four hundred bears, and as many other wild beasts, to be slain; and on the birth-day of Drusilla he exhibited these brutal spectacles, continued to the succeeding day, on a similar scale. Claudius instituted combats between Thessalian horsemen and wild bulls; and he also caused camels to fight for the first time with horses. Invention was racked to devise new combinations of cruelty. Many of the emperors abandoned themselves to these sports with as passionate an ardor as the uncultivated multitude. Sensuality debases as much as ignorance, because it is ignorance under another name. Claudius rose at daylight to repair to the circus, and frequently remained, that he might not lose a single pang of the victims, while the people went to their afternoon meal. Sometimes, during the reigns of Claudius and Nero, an elephant was opposed to a single fencer; and the spectators were delighted by the display of individual skill. Sometimes hundreds, and even thousands, of the more ferocious beasts were slaughtered by guards on horseback; and the pleasure of the multitude was in proportion to the lavishness with which the blood of man and beast was made to flow. The passion for these sports required a more convenient theatre for its gratification than the old circus. The Colosseum was commenced by Vespasian, and completed by Titus (A. D. 79.) This enormous building occupied only three years in its erection. Cassiodorus affirms that this magnificent monument of folly cost as much as would have been required for the building of a capital city. We have the means of distinctly ascertaining its dimensions and accommodations from the great mass of wall that still remains entire; and, although the very clamps of iron and brass that held together the ponderous stones of

that wonderful edifice were removed by Gothic plunderers, and succeeding generations have resorted to it as to a quarry for their temples and their palaces, yet the "enormous skeleton" still stands, to show what prodigious works may be raised by the skill and perseverance of man, and how vain are the mightiest displays of his power when compared with those intellectual efforts which have extended the empire of virtue and of science.

The Colosseum, which is of an oval form, occupies the space of nearly six acres. It may justly be said to have been the most imposing building, from its apparent magnitude, in the world; the pyramids of Egypt can only be compared with it in the extent of their plan, as they cover nearly the same surface. The greatest length is 620 feet, the greatest breadth 513 feet. The outer wall is 157 feet high in its whole extent. The exterior wall is divided into four stories, each ornamented with one of the orders of architecture. The cornice of the upper story is perforated for the purpose of inserting wooden masts, which passed also through the architrave and frieze, and descended to a row of corbels immediately above the upper range of windows, on which are holes to receive the masts. These masts were for the purpose of attaching cords to, for sustaining the awning which defended the spectators from the sun or rain. Two corridors ran all round the building, leading to staircases which ascended to the several stories; and the seats which descended towards the arena, supported throughout upon eighty arches, occupied so much of the space that the clear opening of the present inner wall next the arena is only 287 feet by 180 feet. Immediately above and around the arena was the podium, elevated about twelve or fifteen feet, on which were seated the emperor, senators, ambassadors of foreign nations, and other distinguished personages in that city of distinctions. From the podium to the top of the second story were seats of marble for the equestrian order; above the second story the seats appear to have been constructed of wood. In these various seats eighty thousand spectators might be arranged according to their respective ranks; and indeed it appears from inscriptions, as well as from expressions in Roman writers, that many of the places in this immense theatre were assigned to particular individuals, and that each might find his seat without confusion. The ground was excavated over the surface of the arena in 1813; a great number of substructions were then discovered, which by some antiquarians are considered to be of modern date, and by others to have formed dens for the various beasts that were exhibited. The descriptions which have been left by historians and other writers, of the variety and extent of the shows, would indicate that a vast space and ample conveniences were required beneath the stage, to accomplish the wonders which were doubtless there realized in the presence of assembled Rome. We subjoin, from Messrs. Cresy and Taylor's work, an interior view looking west, taken at the time when the arena was so excavated. It has since been filled up. The external view of this remarkable building is given as it existed in the time of Piranesi, in the last century.

Gibbon, the historian, has given a splendid description, in his twelfth book, of the exhibitions of the Colosseum; but he acknowledges his obligations to Montaigne, who, says the historian, "gives a very just and lively view of Roman magnificence in these spectacles." Our readers, will, we doubt not, be gratified by the quaint but most appropriate sketch of the old philosopher of France:





INTERIOR VIEW OF THE COLOSSEUM.

ROME—THE COLOSSEUM.





"It was doubtless a fine thing to bring and plant within the theatre a great number of vast trees, with all their branches in their full verdure, representing a great shady forest, disposed in excellent order, and the first day to throw into it a thousand ostriches, a thousand stags, a thousand boars, and a thousand fallow deer, to be killed and disposed of by the people: the next day to cause an hundred great lions, an hundred leopards and three hundred bears to be killed in his presence: and for the third day, to make three hundred pair of fencers to fight it out to the last, as the emperor Probus did. It was also very fine to see those vast amphi-theatres, all faced with marble without, curiously wrought with figures and statues, and the inside sparkling with rare decorations and enrichments; all the sides of this vast space filled and environed from the bottom to the top with three or four score ranks of seats—all of marble also—and covered with cushions, where an hundred thousand men might sit placed at their ease; and the place below, where the plays were played, to make it by art first open and cleft into chinks, representing caves that vomited out the beasts designed for the spectacle; and then, secondly, to be overflowed with a profound sea, full of sea-monsters, and loaded with ships of war, to represent a naval battle; and, thirdly, to make it dry and even again for the combats of the gladiators; and for the fourth scene, to have it strewn with vermilion and storax, instead of sand, there to make a solemn feast for all that infinite number of people—the last act of one only day.

"Sometimes they have made a high mountain advance itself, full of fruit trees and other flourishing sorts of woods, sending down rivulets of water from the top, as from the mouth of a fountain: other whiles, a great ship was seen to come rolling in, which opened and divided of itself; and after having disgorged from the hold four or five hundred beasts for fight, closed again and vanished without help. At other times, from the floor of this place, they made spouts of perfumed waters dart their streams upward, and so high as to besprinkle all that infinite multitude. To defend themselves from the injuries of the weather, they had that vast place one while covered over with purple curtains of needlework, and bye and bye with silk of another color, which they could draw off or on in a moment, as they had a mind. The net-work also, that was set before the people to defend them from the violence of these turned-out beasts, was also woven of gold."

"If there be anything excusable in such excesses as these," continues Montaigne, "it is where the novelty and invention create more wonder than expense." Fortunately for the real enjoyments of mankind, even under the sway of a Roman despot, "the novelty and invention" had very narrow limits when applied to matters so utterly unworthy and unintellectual as the cruel sports of the amphitheatre. Probus, indeed, transplanted trees to the arena, so that it had the appearance of a verdant grove; and Severus introduced four hundred ferocious animals in one ship sailing in the little lake which the arena formed. But on ordinary occasions, profusion—tasteless, haughty and uninventive profusion—the gorgeousness of brute power, the pomp of satiated luxury—these constituted the only claim to the popular admiration. If Titus exhibited five thousand wild beasts at the dedication of the amphitheatre, Trajan bestowed ten thousand on the people at the conclusion of the Dacian war. If the younger Gordian collected together bears, elks, zebras, ostriches, boars, and wild horses, he was an imitator only of the spectacles of Carinus, in which the rarity of

the animals was as much considered as their fierceness. Gibbon has well remarked, "While the populace gazed with stupid wonder on the splendid show, the naturalist might indeed observe the figure and properties of so many different species, transported from every part of the ancient world into the amphi theatre of Rome. But this accidental benefit, which science might derive from folly, is surely insufficient to justify such a wanton abuse of the public riches." The prodigal waste of the public riches, however, was not the weightiest evil of the sports of the circus. The public morality was sacrificed upon the same shrine as its wealth. The destruction of beasts became a fit preparation for the destruction of men. A small number of those unhappy persons who engaged in fight with the wild animals of the arena, were trained to these dangerous exercises, as are the matadors of Spain at the present day. These men were accustomed to exhaust the courage of the beast by false attacks; to spring on a sudden past him, striking him behind before he could recover his guard; to cast a cloak over his eyes, and then despatch or bind him at this critical moment of his terror; or to throw a cup full of some chemical preparation into his gaping mouth, so as to produce the stupefaction of intense agony. But the greater part of the human beings who were exposed to these combats, perilous even to the most skillful, were disobedient slaves and convicted malefactors. The Christians, during their persecutions, constituted a very large number of the latter class. The Roman power was necessarily intolerant; the assemblies of the new religion became objects of dislike and suspicion; the patience and constancy of the victims increased the fury of their oppressors; and even such a man as the younger Pliny held that their obstinacy alone was deserving of punishment. Thus, then, the imperial edicts against the early Christians furnished more stimulating exhibitions to the popular appetite for blood than the combat of lion with lion, or gladiator with gladiator. The people were taught to believe that they were assisting at a solemn act of justice; and they came therefore to behold the tiger and the leopard tear the quivering limb of the aged and the young, of the strong and the feeble, without a desire to rescue the helpless, or to succor the brave.

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## BATTLE ABBEY.

**T**HIS famous and once splendid ecclesiastical foundation owes its origin to the great battle between King Harold and William of Normandy, which deprived the former of his crown, and decided, at one of the most critical stages of her history, the fate of England.

The town of Battle, which, with the parish, contains about three thousand inhabitants, stands on rising ground about eight miles north-west from Hastings. It commands a rich and extensive prospect, comprehending the expanse of the ocean to the south, and a sweep of highly cultivated country in all other directions. The village itself consists principally of a single street, which runs up the declivity, and at a little distance from the termination of which, on the top, stands the abbey.



It was on the 28th of September, 1066, that William of Normandy landed at Pevensey, or Pemsey, as it is commonly called, on the Sussex coast, about nine miles to the west of Hastings, at the head of the powerful armament with which he intended to win a kingdom. Harold was at the time in the north, where he had just achieved a great victory over another band of foreign invaders, the Norwegians, headed by their king, who fell in the fight. Owing probably to this circumstance no attempt was made to oppose the landing of William. That leader, as soon as he had got his troops on shore, commenced the erection of a fort on the spot, and sunk, or as some authorities assert, burnt his ships, which are said to have been above nine hundred in number, without reckoning small craft. They must have been vessels of such size as to carry fifty or sixty men each. It was some time before Harold made his appearance to repel this aggression upon his dominions. But the two armies met at last on the fourteenth of October, the birth-day of the English king. Harold on that morning was posted on the eminence now occupied by the village of Battle, and his adversary on another rising ground a short distance to the south.

About nine in the morning, the Norman army began to move, crossed the interval between the two hills, and slowly ascended the eminence on which the English were posted. The banner of St. Peter, as a presage of victory, was borne in the van by Tonstain the Fair—a dangerous honor, which two of the barons had successively declined. Harold beheld them gradually advance, and as the third division appeared, he broke out into violent exclamations of anger and dismay. He had the advantage of the ground, and having secured his flank by trenches, he resolved to stand upon the defensive, and to avoid all action with the cavalry, in which he was inferior. The men of Kent were placed in front, a privilege which they always claimed as their due. The Londoners had the honor of being the royal body guard, and were posted around the standard. The King, himself, on foot, took his station at the head of the infantry, determined to conquer or perish in the action. The Normans rushed to the onset, shouting their national tocsin, "God is our help!" which was loudly answered by the adverse cry of "Christ's cross! the Holy cross!" The battle soon became general, and raged with great fury. The Norman archers advancing, discharged their weapons with effect; but they were received with equal valor by the English, who firmly kept their ground. After the first shower of arrows, they returned to the attack with spears and lances; and again they were obliged to retire, unable to make any impression on their opponents. The battle had continued with desperate obstinacy; and from nine till three in the afternoon, the success on either side was nearly balanced. Disappointed and perplexed at seeing his troops everywhere repulsed by an unbroken wall of courageous soldiers, the Norman general had recourse to a stratagem. He resolved to hazard a feigned retreat; and a body of a thousand horse were ordered to take flight. The artifice was successful. The credulous English, in the heat of action, followed; but their temerity was speedily punished with terrible slaughter. Still the great body of the army maintained its position; for so long as Harold lived and fought, they seemed to be invincible. A little before sunset, an arrow, shot at random, pierced his eye; he dropped from his steed in agony; and the knowledge of his fall relaxed the efforts of his followers. A furious charge of the Norman horse increased the confusion which the

RUINS OF BATTLE ABBEY.





King's wound must have occasioned. For a time, the Kentish men and East Saxons seemed to retrieve the fortune of the day. At length the English banner was cut down, and the papal colors erected in its place, announced that William of Normandy was the conqueror. It was now late in the evening, but such was the obstinacy of the vanquished, that they continued the struggle in many parts of the bloody field long after dark. The carnage was great. On the part of the conquerors, nearly sixty thousand men had been engaged, and of these more than one fourth were left dead on the field. The number of the English and the amount of their loss are unknown. The vanity of the Normans has exaggerated the army of the enemy beyond the bounds of credibility; but the native writers reduce it to a handful of resolute warriors. The historians of both countries agree, that with Harold and his brothers perished all the nobility of the south of England.

The erection of Battle Abbey (the *Abbatia de Bello*, as it was called in Latin) was commenced by the conqueror in the course of the following year, in conformity, it is said, with a vow which he had made before the fight, but was not completed till 1094, in the reign of Rufus. The high altar is asserted to have been placed on the spot where the dead body of Harold was found. It is more probable, however, as other authorities record, that the spot was that on which the royal standard was raised at the commencement of the battle. The house was originally intended to contain one hundred and forty monks, but only sixty were placed in it, who were brought from the monastery of Marmoustier in Normandy. Many manors, chiefly in the counties of Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Oxford and Berks, were bestowed upon it, along with the most ample privileges,—exemption from all taxation, the rights of free warren, treasure trove and sanctuary; independence of episcopal jurisdiction; and to the abbot, the singular prerogative of pardoning any condemned thief or robber whom he should meet on his way to execution. Numerous charters granted by the Conqueror, by William Rufus, by Henry I., and by other kings, down to Henry IV., in favor of this establishment, are still preserved.

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## BEDFORD.

**A**MONG the social phenomena of England, its charitable institutions are deservedly famous, not only for their numbers, which are almost incalculable, but for the individual magnificence they so frequently exhibit. We do not, however, consider them a subject for unmingled congratulation. Charities are the outpourings of the very rich to the very poor, honorable to the giver and not necessarily degrading to the receiver, but revealing by their very existence the necessities they so imperfectly remove, the fearful inequalities of our social condition. But these necessities do exist: therefore, when we look around on our schools, colleges, infirmaries, and asylums, our foundling hospitals for deserted infancy, our almshouses for friendless old age, and our houses of refuge for those who are destitute, we must at least feel grateful to their founders.



BEDFORD SCHOOL.



The great benefactor of Bedford was Sir William Harpur, an alderman of London in the reign of Edward the Sixth, who, after establishing a free-school for the instruction of the children of the town in "grammar and good manners," conveyed to the corporation thirteen acres of land, situated in the parish of St. Andrew, Holborn (London), for its support, and for the unusual purpose of portioning poor maidens of the town, the overplus to be given in alms to the poor. The land was let on building leases; and considering that it now comprises Lamb's Conduit-street, Bedford-row, and the streets in the immediate neighborhood, we need not be surprised to find the value of the property raised from 150*l.* a year to 13,500*l.*, its amount in 1833. So great an increase of income has required, at different periods, the interference of Parliament to regulate its distribution. The best illustration we can give of the modes in which this large sum is spent, is the abstract of the accounts for 1833-4, from which we extract the following items, omitting the fractional sums:—Expended on the different schools, 2630*l.*; exhibitions, 640*l.*; marriage-portions, 500*l.*; hospital for poor children, 670*l.*; donations on going out to service, 80*l.*; payments with apprentices, 1335*l.*; donations to apprentices after service, 290*l.*; almshouses (58 in number,) 2200*l.*; distributed to the poor, 800*l.*; buildings and furniture, 4711*l.*; expenses of various kinds, about 2807*l.*: making the entire expenditure for that year 16,363*l.* The different schools alluded to are the grammar-school, containing, besides the private boarders, about 80 boys, a commercial school with 100 to 150 boys, and a national school containing 350 boys, in which on half-holydays 170 girls are taught. In addition to these a building is now in course of erection for a regular girls' school and an infant school. Gratuitous instruction, including books and every necessary, is thus afforded to the children of all resident parishioners in the five parishes that constitute the town. The girls in the hospital for poor children are taught household duties and needlework, as well as reading and writing. The exhibitions, eight in number, and worth 80*l.* each, are given to the ablest boys in the school (six to those on the foundation, and two to the private boarders,) for their support at college. We have therefore the entire education of a town, present and future, provided for by the gift of one individual! Our engraving presents a view of the range of buildings recently erected by the trustees, in the Tudor style of architecture; the building on the left is the preparatory school, that on the right the commercial; the centre range comprising the clerk's dwelling-house, board-room, and blue-coat hospital.

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## FOTHERINGAY.

**T**HE midland counties of England are rich in scenes of historical interest. The events of which the ancient towns of Leicester, Warwick, Coventry, Northampton, Stamford, or Peterboro' have each been the theatre, cannot be touched upon without becoming involved in some of the most important passages of English history. In these towns Parliaments have assembled, at which mailed barons and their armed retainers met in jealousy of the sovereign and often of each other; and before the fusion

FOTHERINGAY CHURCH





of all parts into one common body, each possessing similar interests—when the question, “What do they in the north?” was one on which depended the arming of partisans and friends in the south, east, or west—opposing factions advanced and met here in the heart of old England, disturbing the labors of its rural population, awing the towns, if their numbers were sufficiently formidable, and exciting the burghers to join their ranks, if the cause were inspiring and calculated to strike the popular feeling. Of all these by-gone events it is interesting to have some memorial.

The village of Fotheringay, near Oundle, in the north-eastern part of Northamptonshire, is chiefly known as the place where Mary Queen of Scots was executed, after having been a prisoner for the space of eighteen years in a country where she expected to have been received hospitably, at least, if not with the kindly feelings of kinship.

At the period of the Domesday Survey, the Countess Judith held land at “Fodringeia.” By the second marriage of her daughter with David, king of Scotland, the manor of Fotheringay came into the possession of the Scottish king, and it was subsequently in the possession of his sons Malcolm and William, who were successively kings of Scotland. The castle had been built about the year 1084, by Simon de St. Liz, a Norman, second Earl of Northampton. In 1212, being then held by David of Scotland, he was required by King John to give it up to the English crown, and refusing to accede to this demand, the sheriff was directed to raise the civil force of the county, and, with the assistance of the townsmen of Northampton, to obtain possession. This object they effected. In 1307 Edward II. granted the castle to the Earl of Richmond. In this reign, a weekly market on Wednesday, and a yearly fair on the eve, day and morrow of St. Michael, were instituted. The state of the castle in 1340, as ascertained under an inquisition held in that year, is thus described:—It was well built of stone, walled in, embattled, and encompassed with a good moat. Within the castle was one large hall, two chapels, two chambers, a kitchen, and bakehouse, all of stone, with a porter’s lodge, having a chamber over it and a drawbridge beneath. The apartments were thus few and inconvenient; but within the castle walls was another place, called the manor, which contained houses and offices, and an outward gate with a room over it. The area enclosed was altogether about ten acres. The castle, being bounded on the east and south by the Nene, would appear to have been tolerably inaccessible when the wretched state of the roads at that period is taken into account. At this inquisition it was shown that a neighboring abbey enjoyed a messuage in the village, with some land, on condition of performing service thrice a week for the souls of John Baliol and his ancestors, kings of Scotland, once lords of the castle and manor. About the end of the fourteenth century, the castle, being in a ruinous condition, was repaired and its strength increased by a keep.

During the fifteenth century, Fotheringay Castle belonged to several members of the Plantagenet family. Edward Plantagenet, who died on the field of Agincourt, was buried in the church of Fotheringay. Near him was interred his kinsman, Richard, Duke of York, who in an attempt to raise himself to the throne was killed at the fight at Wakefield, in 1460, along with his third son, Edmund, Earl of Rutland. The funeral ceremonies were conducted with great pomp, and the king and many of the nobility were present. The wife of Richard, a woman of great ambition, survived

him thirty-six years, most of which she spent at Fotheringay. She had married in the hope of becoming queen. The death of her husband and son at Wakefield, and of Richard III., also her son (who was born at Fotheringay), at Bosworth, were severe blows to the party of her family. The murders of her grandsons, Edward V. and his brother, were still more appalling instances of the perils with which faction surrounded the claims of royalty. But though not a queen herself, one of her sons, Edward IV., sat upon the throne. It was during the reign of the latter that she gave up to the crown her rights in the manor of Fotheringay; and here Alexander of Scotland promised Edward fealty when he should come to the Scottish throne. Henry VII. gave the manor to his wife, and Henry VIII. settled it upon his first queen. It was held by the crown down to the reign of James I.

In the reign of Henry VIII. the castle was described by Leland as "fair and metely strong, with double ditches, and with a keep very ancient and strong. There be very fair lodgyns in the castell, and, as I heard, Catherine of Spain did great costs of late tymes in refreshing of it." The road towards Oundle, a distance of two miles, he describes as "by mervelus fair corn-ground and pasture, but little wooded."

In the reign of James I., a few years after the execution of the Queen of Scots, his mother, the condition of the castle, ascertained by proper inquisition, was as follows:—The castle was built of stone, and surrounded a fair court, being itself encompassed by a double moat. The great dining-room was well garnished with pictures, the hall large and spacious, the lodgings were goodly; there was a convenient yard for wood, large brew-houses, and a capacious barn. On the south side the Nene formed the moat, and the inner moat was formed by the mill-brook. The demolition of the castle by James was intended to mark his indignation at the execution of his mother.

In 1787, when Mr. Nicholls visited the site, he remarked that "almost all the materials have been carried away, and even the foundations dug up, for the purposes of building, and for repairing the roads, causeways, and banks of the river. The palace was situated on the south-east side of the castle-hill, fronting the river that runs below, commanding a most beautiful prospect over the extensive meadows into the south. The porch, or entrance, except a small fragment, has been taken down within these few years. A farm-house has been built on the spot occupied by the old stables." Mr. Nicholls says that the hall where Mary was beheaded was on the first ascent, and the keep on the second. There was an excellent specimen of an old hostelry existing in 1787, which was then still used as an inn.

The village has not a population of three hundred souls. The fair and market which it once possessed have long ceased to attract sellers and buyers. A nunnery which existed here was transferred at an early period to another place. In 1411 a college was begun for a master, twelve chaplains, or fellows, eight clerks, and thirteen choristers. Henry IV., and Edward, Duke of York, who was buried at Fotheringay, were the co-founders of this institution, which was not dissolved until the reign of Edward VI. As Leland remarks of the village—"The glorie of it standeth by the paroch church of a fair buildid and collegiated." It contains an ancient stone pulpit and a fine font. If the remains of the castle had been



on an extensive scale, and well preserved, the village would be more familiarly known than it is; but its celebrity and consequence are solely the reflection of past times, the monuments of which do not exist to attract the visitor to the spot.

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## FARNHAM CASTLE.

**F**ARNHAM PARISH, in Surrey, England, possesses several points of interest. Its name is perhaps the most generally known from the celebrity of the hops produced within its limits; while another class of people know it best as containing the principal official residence of the bishops of Winchester; and antiquarians feel some interest in it on account of the remains of the castle built by the ancient bishops. The engraving directs our attention to the castle and palace principally.

The manor of Farnham was given to the see of Winchester by Ethelbald, king of the West Saxons, and it has ever since remained the property of the bishops. The castle, which stands upon a hill on the north side of the town of Farnham, is said to have been built by Bishop Henry de Blois, the brother of king Stephen, in the year 1129. In that age bishops were nearly as much soldiers as ecclesiastics, and, in the spirit of the times, found or thought it necessary to erect fortresses after the manner of the temporal peers; often, however, deeming it also necessary to counterpoise an act so exclusively secular by founding a number of ecclesiastical or learned establishments equal to that of their military structures. There are few points of interest in the history of Farnham Castle. It was one of the fortresses which, in the unhappy reign of King John, fell into the hands of Louis, the Dauphin of France, who possessed himself of it in June, 1216; but it was, not long afterwards, recovered for Henry III. In the course of the wars between that monarch and his barons, this castle was held by the latter, but being taken by the king, was in a great measure destroyed by his directions. It was afterwards rebuilt in a style of considerable magnificence, with a deep moat, strong walls, and towers. No notice of it, however, occurs in history until the civil war in the time of Charles I. Sir John Denham, who was nominated sheriff of the county in 1642, took possession of it for the king, and was appointed its governor; but he soon after withdrew to join the king at Oxford, leaving the castle to the mercy of Waller, the Parliament's General, who after making the small garrison prisoners, blew up the fortress on the 29th of December, the same year. About a year afterwards, Sir William Waller is mentioned as having drawn up his forces in Farnham Park, and as marching from thence to Alton (nine miles distant), where he put Lord Craford to flight, and returned to Farnham with seven hundred prisoners, whom he secured in the castle and parish church. The next notice of the castle occurs in July, 1648, when it was referred to the committee at Derby House, to take "such effectual course with Farnham Castle as to put it in that condition of indefensibleness as it may be no occasion for endangering the peace of



RUINS OF FARNHAM CASTLE.



the county." A rate was made in the county to defray the expense of this service. From this and the preceding statement it would seem that the injuries it sustained during the siege and from the subsequent blowing up, had not completely reduced it to a ruined condition.

After the restoration, Bishop Morley expended £8,000 in rebuilding and repairing the palace which his predecessors had erected within the precincts of the castle, and which had generally formed their principal residence. It is neither very handsome nor very convenient, and appears to have been patched up out of the building dismantled by order of Parliament. It is quadrangular, embattled, and built of brick, covered with stucco. The most impressive part is the great entrance tower at the west end, which retains the most of an ancient appearance, and confers some dignity on this front of the edifice. It is in that style of brick building which was brought into use in the reign of Edward IV.

## THE LIFE BOAT.

**T**HE heavy seas which break upon the rugged coasts of Northumberland and Durham, render that part of Britain the frequent scene of disastrous shipwrecks. In the year 1789, the ship *Adventure*, of Newcastle, was stranded on the south side of Tynemouth Haven, in the midst of tremendous breakers. The crew climbed up into the shrouds for safety, from whence they dropped into the sea in the presence of thousands of spectators, not one of whom dared to venture out to their assistance in the common description of boats, although stimulated by the prospect of a high reward. The inhabitants of South Shields were so strongly affected by this melancholy occurrence that a public meeting was called, at which a committee was formed, and empowered to offer premiums for plans of a boat on a principle which should render it impossible to sink in the heaviest sea. Among many which were laid before the committee, that of Mr. Henry Greathead obtained the most general approbation; and, in pursuance of their orders, the first life-boat was constructed by him, and launched on the 30th of January, 1790. The value of this invention was soon fully proved, and its importance to the mercantile navy acknowledged. Mr. Greathead had made his models public, and therefore did not himself receive those advantages which, in justice, he ought to have derived from his ingenuity. In 1802 he accordingly petitioned the House of Commons, for the purpose of obtaining from the nation such reward as, in consideration of these circumstances, he might be thought to deserve. The petition was referred to a committee, which particularly directed its inquiries as to the utility of the life-boat, and the originality of the invention claimed by Mr. Greathead. On the first point several old seamen and persons employed in shipping were examined. One of the former stated that he had himself been in the life-boat, and had seen her go off scores of times, and never saw her fail in bringing away the crew from wrecks or vessels in distress. No other boat could have gone from the shore at the time the life-boat went. He also stated that, in the event of the life-boat filling

LAUNCHING THE LIFE BOAT.





with water, she would still continue upright, and not founder as boats of the common construction did. He had seen her come ashore so full of water that it ran over each side. Another individual had been witness to the wreck of several ships at the same time. Out of one vessel the life-boat took fifteen men, who would otherwise inevitably have perished, as the ship went to pieces immediately after, and the wreck came on shore almost as soon as the boat. The crew of one of these vessels took to their own boat, which sunk, and all but two were lost. It was stated that, on one occasion, when the boat was full of water, the crew all went to one side, in order to try the possibility of upsetting her, which they were unable to accomplish. At the time when this committee was appointed, twelve years had elapsed since Mr. Greatheed's invention, during which period at least three hundred persons had been brought on shore from wrecks and ships in distress off Shields alone. It was fully established that no sea, however high, could upset or sink the life-boat. The originality of the invention being also clearly due to Mr. Greatheed, Parliament voted him the sum of £1200, "as a reward for his invention of the life-boat, whereby many lives have already been saved, and great security is afforded to seamen and property in cases of shipwreck." The subscribers to Lloyd's presented Mr. Greatheed with 100 guineas, and voted £2000 for the purpose of encouraging the building of life-boats in different ports of the kingdom. Two years afterwards, the Emperor Alexander presented Mr. Greatheed with a valuable diamond ring.

Owing to the dangerous character of the Durham and Northumberland coast, and the quantity of shipping belonging to the north-eastern ports, the life-boat is oftener launched there than from any other part of the kingdom; and, under the guidance of its crew, more frequently snatches the mariner from destruction.

The great characteristic of the life-boat is its buoyancy. It possesses this requisite quality in consequence of the bottom being hollow and perfectly air-tight; and the sides are also surrounded by several boxes, or compartments, which are also air-tight. We believe that boats are coming into use provided with a set of copper tubes. One upon this plan has been constructed at Sunderland. The division of the sides into several parts prevents the boat being endangered in case of its being struck by a cross wave. This, however, can seldom occur, because both ends being formed alike, the direction of the boat can be changed without exposing it to the rude shocks to which it would be subjected by turning from one point to another in a tempestuous sea. It is also contrived that when the boat ascends the waves, any water which it may have shipped passes out at the lower end; and there are also a number of holes at the bottom, through which whatever remains is immediately discharged. The Sunderland boat was built in the year 1800, ten years after Mr. Greatheed's invention had become known. It is twenty-six feet in length, and the width is nine and a-half feet. This boat, on one occasion, would have been knocked to pieces by a cross sea but for the division of the side into various parts. In the bottom are six air-holes, which are so proportioned to the size and gravity of the vessel that, when full of water, it is discharged in forty seconds. She is managed by six or ten men, as the urgency of the case may require, two of whom steer with seventeen-feet oars. The oars are secured in their places by a coiled rope. The boat is preserved in repair, and its crew paid

by a small impost on ships entering the harbor. When out of service, it is kept under a substantial shed near the beach, mounted upon a four-wheeled carriage. As soon as the thrilling cry "A wreck!" is heard, the lieutenant of the boat assembles his men; and after a survey of the ill-fated ship, each proceeds to his place in the boat. When all their arrangements are completed, two or more horses are harnessed to the carriage, and the boat is drawn to the water's edge. By a mechanical contrivance, the frame of the carriage is then brought into a sloping position, and the boat is launched amid the breakers to pursue its benevolent enterprise.

The men who compose the crew of the life-boat often acquire a sort of moral dignity, occasioned by the exercise of the manly virtues which a faithful discharge of their duties demands, and the sympathetic feelings to which they are habituated by the nature of their vocation. A fine fellow at Tynemouth said to the artist who made the sketches which accompany this description, patting the sides of his boat as if it were a favorite animal, "Have you made a picture of my boat, sir? She's a good one, and has been with me at the saving of twenty-seven lives in one morning."

The boats in general of this description, are painted white on the outside; this color more immediately engaging the eye of the spectator when rising from the hollow of the sea. The person who steers her should be well acquainted with the course of the tides, in order to take every possible advantage; the best method, if the direction will admit of it, is to head the sea. The steersman should keep his eye fixed upon the wave, or breaker, and encourage the rowers to give way as the boat rises to it; being then aided by the force of the oars, she launches over it with vast rapidity, without shipping any water. It is necessary to observe that there is a often a strong reflux of the sea occasioned by the stranded wrecks, which requires both dispatch and care in the people employed, that the boat be not damaged. When the wreck is reached, if the wind blows to the land, the boat will come inshore without any other effort than steering.

In the case of a ship being stranded on a part of the coast where the services of the life-boat are inaccessible, it has been recommended to fasten a boom to the boat's bow, by which means the violence of the waves are broken. In a treatise on 'Practical Seamanship,' by Mr. Hutchinson, an instance is mentioned of the preservation of ten men in a small boat only twelve feet long, by means of a log of wood tied to the boat's bow, which kept her end on to the waves, and preserved her from filling with water.

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## POPE'S TREE.

**B**INFIELD, a village in Berkshire, situated about seven miles west of Windsor, and within the precinct of the forest, is remarkable from having been the residence of Alexander Pope, during his early years. The father of the poet, having accumulated a considerable fortune in business in London, retired to this place during the infancy of his son, and here purchased a house and estate.





POPE'S TREE.

INDIAN PROAS.






Speaking of this house, which although probably much altered from its original state, is still standing, Pope calls it

———"my paternal cell,  
A little house, with trees a-row,  
And, like its master, very low."

About half-a-mile from the house, an interesting memorial of the poet still remains, or at least did so a few years since, when the writer last visited the spot. There is here a fine grove of beeches, pleasantly situated on the gentle slope of a hill, which commands an agreeable, though not extensive view of the surrounding country. This grove was a favorite resort of Pope's, who is said to have composed many of his earlier pieces sitting under the shade of one of the trees, below which a seat was then placed. The recollection of this circumstance was preserved by Lady Gower, an admirer of the poet, who caused the words "HERE POPE SANG" to be cut in large letters in the bark, at some height from the ground; and as this inscription, at the time we mention, was distinctly legible, it was no doubt, at one period, occasionally renewed.

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## INDIAN PROAS.

 ESSELS like that represented in the engraving belong to a class peculiar to East Indian seas, more especially to the cluster called the Ladrones, and other adjacent islands. As the term *proa* in Spanish is equivalent to the English *prow*, both signifying the head or fore part of a ship, the primary expression from which they are derived conveying the idea of "that which projects or stretches forward," it is probable that the Spaniards bestowed the name *proa* on these vessels from their singular construction. Both bow and stern are alike, so that by only shifting the sail, the vessel can sail backward or forward, without putting about.

Magellan, who discovered the archipelago, to which he gave the name *Islas de los Ladrones*, or islands of the thieves, because the natives evinced a pilfering propensity in their intercourse with his people, simply remarks concerning the boats of the islanders, that their canoes are oddly contrived and patched up, *yet sail with wonderful rapidity*. As the name *proa* was applied of course subsequently to the discovery of the islands, the inference is natural enough that it was so applied during the early intercourse of the Spaniards with the natives.

A particular description of the *proa* is given by the writer or writers of "Anson's Voyage round the World." Speaking of the Indians who inhabit the Ladrones, it is said, "that they are no ways defective in understanding, for their flying *proa*, in particular, which has been for ages the only vessel used by them, is so singular and extraordinary an invention, that it would do honor to any nation, however dexterous and acute. Whether we consider its aptitude to the particular navigation of these islands, or the uncommon simplicity and ingenuity of its fabric and contrivance, or the extraordinary velocity with which it moves, we shall find it worthy of our admiration, and meriting a place amongst the mechanical productions of the most civilized nations, where arts and sciences have most eminently flourished.

"The name of *flying proa* given to these vessels is owing to the swiftness with which they sail. Of this the Spaniards assert such stories as appear altogether incredible to those who have never seen these vessels move. However, from some rude estimates made by our people, of the velocity with which they crossed the horizon at a distance whilst we lay at Tinian, I cannot help believing that with a brisk trade wind they will run near twenty miles an hour; which, though greatly short of what the Spaniards report of them, is yet a prodigious degree of swiftness.

"The construction of the proa is a direct contradiction to the practice of the rest of mankind. For as the rest of the world make the head of their vessels different from the stern, but the two sides alike, the proa, on the contrary, has her head and stern exactly alike, but her two sides very different; the side intended to be always the lee-side, being flat; and the windward-side made rounding, in the manner of other vessels. And to prevent her oversetting, which, from her small breadth and the straight run of her leeward-side, would, without this precaution, infallibly happen, there is a frame laid out from her to windward, to the end of which is fastened a log, fashioned into the shape of a small boat, and made hollow. The weight of the frame is intended to balance the proa, and the small boat is by its buoyancy (as it is always in the water) to prevent her oversetting to windward; and this frame is usually called an outrigger. The body of the proa (at least of that we took) is made of two pieces joined endwise, and sewed together with bark, for there is no iron used about her. She is about two inches thick at the bottom, which at the gunwale is reduced to less than one.

"The proa generally carries six or seven Indians; two of which are placed in the head and stern, who steer the vessel alternately with a paddle, according to the tack she goes on, he in the stern being the steersman; the other Indians are employed either in bailing out the water which she accidentally ships, or in setting and trimming the sail." From this description of these vessels it is sufficiently obvious how dexterously they are fitted for ranging the collection of islands called the Ladrões. For as these islands lie nearly north and south of each other, and are all within the limits of the trade-wind, the proas by sailing most excellently on a wind, and with either end foremost, can run from one of these islands to the other and back again only by shifting the sail, without ever putting about; and by the flatness of their lee-side, and their small breadth, they are capable of lying much nearer the wind than any other vessel hitherto known.

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## SUSPENSION BRIDGES.

**T**HE most obvious and simple bridge is that formed by single trees thrown across small streams, or, in case of broader streams, by fastening the roots of a tree on each bank, and twisting together their branches in the middle. The next step is not much more complex; for in a space too great for the before-mentioned operations, a few manual



arts were required to form ropes of rushes, or leathern thongs, to stretch as many of them as were necessary between trees, or posts, on the opposite banks, and connect and cover them so as to form a slight bridge. The following accounts, given by Don Antonio de Ulloa, will afford a notion how these sorts of bridges were constructed and used in the mountainous parts of South America:—"Several bujuco were twisted together, so as to form a large cable of the length required. Six of these are carried from one side of the river to the other, two of which are considerably higher than the other four. On the latter are laid sticks in a transverse direction, and, over these, branches of trees as a flooring; the former are fastened to the four which form the bridge, and by that means serve as rails for the security of the passenger, who would otherwise be in no small danger from the continual oscillation."

"Some of the rivers," says the same author, "are crossed by means of a tartabita. The tartabita is only a single rope, made of bujuco, or thongs of an ox hide, and consisting of several strands, and about six or eight inches in thickness. This rope is extended from one side of the river to the other, and fastened on each bank to strong posts. From the tartabita hangs a kind of leathern hammock, capable of holding a man; and a clue is attached at each end. A rope is fastened to either clue, and extended to each side of the river, for drawing the hammock to the side intended. On one of the banks is a kind of wheel, or winch, to slacken the tartabita to the degree required; and the hammock being pushed on first setting off, is quickly landed on the other side. For carrying over the mules two tartabitas are required, one for each side of the river, and the ropes are much thicker and slacker. The animal being secured with girths round the belly, neck, and legs, is launched in mid-air, and immediately landed on the opposite bank. In this manner rivers are crossed between thirty and forty fathoms from shore to shore, at a height above the water of twenty-five fathoms." In China and Thibet there were, at an early period, suspension-bridges formed by cables of vegetable substances; but the nations of the East, after having, in the earliest times, made astonishing progress, stopped all at once in their march.

Suspension-bridges were not considered applicable to the purposes of a commercial country until within a comparatively recent period. They had been superseded by substantial structures, in which utility was joined to magnificence; but these, as they could not always be carried over turbulent streams, did not satisfy the ever-active wants of an industrious people. About a century ago, a bridge of iron wire was suspended over the Tees, at Winch, near Durham, which served for foot-passengers.

The Menai Bridge was a most magnificent specimen of engineering talent. It was constructed under the directions of Mr. Telford. In 1818 this gentleman was surveying the improvements which could be effected on the extensive line of roads from London to Holyhead,—the point of the Welsh coast nearest to Ireland. Holyhead is situated in the island of Anglesea, which is separated from Caernarvonshire by a celebrated strait, or arm of the sea, named the Menai, through which the tide flows with great velocity, and, from local circumstances, in a very peculiar manner. The intercourse of the inhabitants with the opposite portion of Wales was thus circumscribed. There were five or six ferries, but the navigation was often difficult, and sometimes dangerous. One of the staple productions of the



SUSPENSION BRIDGE.



island is cattle, and they were generally compelled to swim across the Strait. The importance of obtaining more rapid means of intercourse with Ireland occasioned Mr. Telford strongly to direct his attention to the possibility of throwing a bridge across the Menai. The obstacle was a rapid stream with high banks. To have erected a bridge of the usual construction would have obstructed the navigation; besides, the erection of piers in the bed of the sea was impracticable. Mr. Telford therefore recommended the construction of a suspension-bridge, which was completed in 1826.

The top-masts of the first three-masted vessel which passed under the bridge were nearly as high as those of a frigate, but they cleared twelve feet and a half below the level of the roadway.

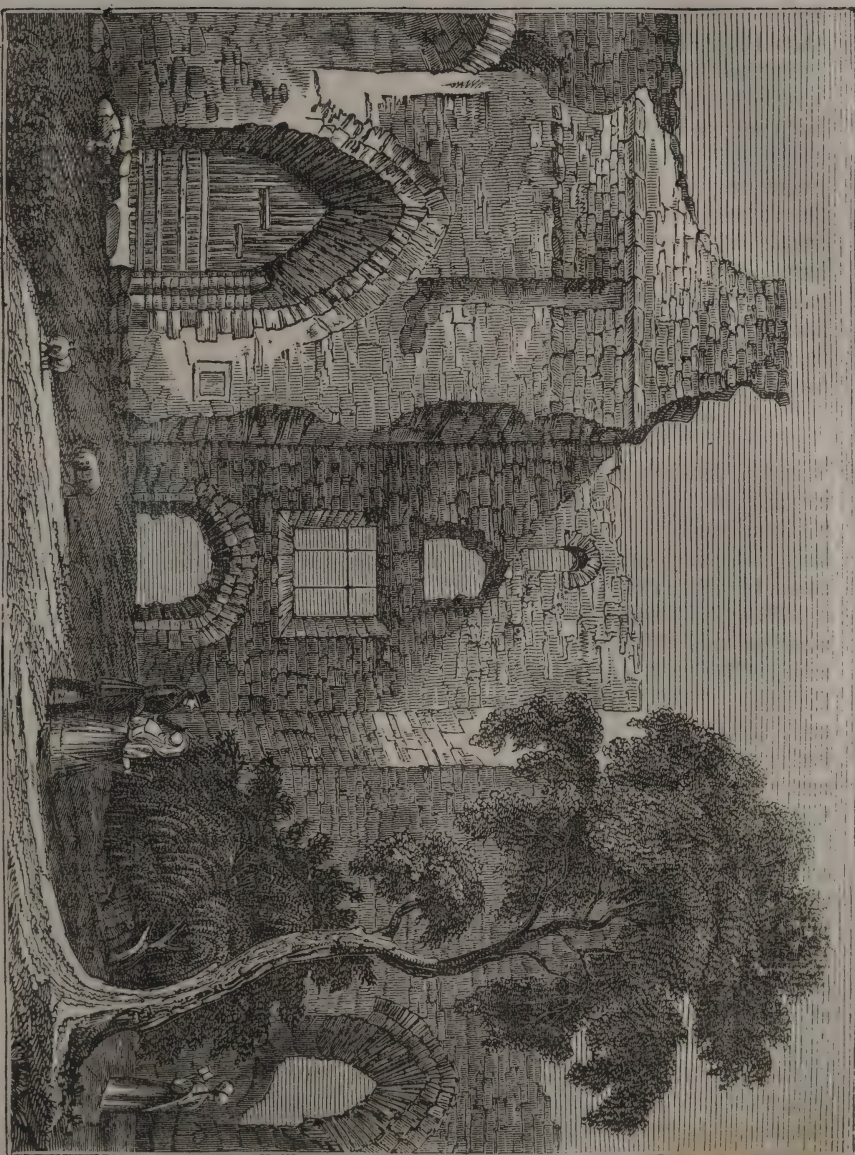
This bridge occasioned Mr. Telford more intense thought than any other of his works. To a friend, a few months before his death, he stated that his anxiety for a short time previous to the opening was so extreme that he had but little sound sleep; and that a much longer continuance of that condition of mind must have undermined his health. Not that he had any reason to doubt the strength and stability of any part of the structure, for he had employed all the precautions that he could imagine useful, as suggested by his own experience and consideration, or by the zeal and talents of his able assistants, yet the bare possibility that some weak point might have escaped his and their vigilance in a work so new, kept the whole structure constantly passing in review before his mind's eye, to examine if he could discover a point that did not contribute its share to the perfection of the whole."

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## NEWARK CASTLE.

**T**HIS celebrated structure is understood to have been built in the reign of King Stephen, by Alexander, Bishop of Lincoln, who also erected the castles of Banbury, in Oxfordshire, and Sleaford, in Lincolnshire. Henry of Huntingdon says that this castle, emphatically called the *New-work*, gave name to the town. It seems, at that time, to have been considered somewhat improper for an ecclesiastic to busy himself in the erection of fortresses; and we are informed that Alexander founded two monasteries in the way of expiation. If the old writers are to be literally understood, the bishop was certainly the founder of the castle; but Dr. Stukely and Mr. Dickinson are disposed to contend that they are not to be understood as saying more than that Alexander enlarged, ornamented and fortified a castle which previously existed. One of the principal reasons for this conclusion is, that even in its ruins, this castle exhibits at least two different styles of architecture—one much anterior to the other, which was not likely to have been the case had the bishop built the structure from the foundation.

Be this as it may, the king did not at all approve of the taste which Alexander and other bishops displayed for building and strengthening castles; and when ultimately roused to act with vigor against the turbulent barons and factious ecclesiastics, he commenced with the latter, and either



RUINS OF NEWARK CASTLE.



cajoled or forced them into submission, until he obtained possession, successively, of all their strongholds. Alexander was found to be very intractable, and was therefore, with his uncle, seized by the king, and detained in prison till all the fortresses of both were surrendered. The governor of Newark Castle refused to surrender it unless ordered to do so by the bishop in person; but he did not persist in this determination when he received notice from the prelate that the king had made a vow that he (the bishop) should have neither meat nor drink till that fortress was surrendered.

During the troubles in the latter end of King John's reign, the castle was in the hands of the royal party; and it was not only gallantly defended, but the garrison frequently sallied out and wasted the lands of such of the insurgent barons as had estates in that neighborhood. The Dauphin of France therefore thought it necessary to send a considerable force, under the command of Gilbert de Gaunt, whom he had created Earl of Lincoln, to take the castle. This was found to be no easy matter; and when Gilbert heard of the approach of the king at the head of a powerful army, he raised the siege and retired to London. Not long afterwards, the king actually arrived, but in no condition to fight the barons had they been there; for on his march from Lynn through Lincolnshire, a great part of his men, together with all his treasure, carriages, baggage, and regalia,

"Were in the washes all unwarily  
Devoured by the unexpected flood."

When he reached the castle he was no less indisposed in body than distressed in mind, and died there on the 19th of October, 1216. Stowe adds:—"Immediately on the king's death, his servants, taking all that was about him, fled, not leaving so much of anything (worth the carriage) as would cover his dead carcass."

When the French prince made terms with John's successor, the barons who had assisted the former being left in an unpleasant predicament, seized and fortified this castle with the view of making terms for themselves with the king. The Protector, the Earl of Pembroke, marched against them, and, after a siege of eight days, the fortress was surrendered to him, the besieged throwing themselves upon the king's mercy. Henry restored the castle to the see of Lincoln, which was then filled by Hugh de Wells, Chancellor of England.

After this nothing of historical interest occurs for several centuries in connection with Newark Castle. It deserves to be mentioned, however, that Peter de la Mare, the Speaker of the House of Commons, was sent prisoner to this castle in the year 1376, at the instance of the Duke of Lancaster, who, after the death of the Black Prince, influenced the royal councils. De la Mare is said to have seen through and opposed a design of the Duke to secure the succession of the crown to himself and descendants, to the prejudice of the issue of his elder brother.

In the year 1530, Cardinal Wolsey lodged in the castle with a large retinue, while on his way to Southwell, where he spent great part of that summer. In Peck's '*Desiderata Curiosa*,' this castle is mentioned among the other castles and royal mansions belonging to Queen Elizabeth. King James I. lodged in the castle in the year 1602, on his way from Scotland to London. He was entertained by the corporation of the town, who, among other demonstrations of loyalty, presented him with a gilt cup. Here it was that he afforded to the English the first demonstration of those

exalted notions of prerogative and kingly power which he had afterwards such unfortunate success in inculcating into the mind of his ill-fated son Charles. During Charles' reign, the castle again became of historical importance. The garrison of the castle and the inhabitants of the town adhered firmly to the royal interest throughout the protracted struggle between the King and the Parliament. It formed to the royal party a strong and most useful post, from whence many successful excursions were made; and it became an occasional place of retreat for the king himself. It was twice besieged without success by the Parliamentary forces under Sir John Meldrum; and when it surrendered, in May, 1646, it was by the king's special command; and the governor, Lord Bellasis, obtained very advantageous and honorable conditions for himself and the garrison. After the surrender of the king, most of the royal garrisons were ordered by the Parliament to be dismantled, and this of Newark among the rest. Since that time it has been a ruin.

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## STATE OF THE WORLD BEFORE ADAM.

**A**MONG the millions of human beings that dwell on the earth, how few are those who think of inquiring into its past history. The annals of Greece and Rome are imparted to our children as a necessary and important branch of education, while the history of the world itself is neglected, or at the most is confined to those who are destined for a scientific profession; even adults are content to receive on hearsay a vague idea that the globe was in being for some undefined period preceding the era of human history, but few seek to know in what state it existed or what appearance it presented.

This is owing, partly, to the hard names and scientific language in which geologists have clothed their science, and partly to ignorance of the beauty and attractive nature of the study; we dread the long, abstruse-sounding titles of *Ichthyosaurus* and *Plesiosaurus*, and are repelled by the dry disquisitions on mineralogy into which professors of the science are apt to stray. The truth is, however, that geology properly is divided into two distinct branches; one of these consists of the less attractive, though equally useful, investigation of the chemical constituents of the strata, and the classification of the fossil flora and fauna which belong to the various formations; this, which may be styled geology proper, is the department which belongs almost exclusively to men of science, and, inasmuch as it involves the necessity of acquaintance with the sister sciences of chemistry, mineralogy, zoology, and botany, is least adapted to the understanding of the uninitiated. The other branch, which may be called the history of geology, presents none of these difficulties; it is as easy of comprehension, and as suitable to the popular mind, as any other historical account; while it presents a variety of interest, and a revolution of events, before which the puny annals of modern history sink into insignificance.

Such of our readers as are unacquainted with the science, will probably be inclined to doubt the possibility of our being aware of events which took



place ages before Adam was created ; here, however, nature herself steps in, and, becoming her own historian, writes "in the living rock" the chronicles of past ages, and so accurately and circumstantially, that we can say positively, "Here existed the sea at such a period, and here the tide ebbed and flowed for centuries;" nay, she shows us the footmarks of extinct animals, and tells us the size, nature, habits, and food of creatures which have for unnumbered ages been buried in the grave of time. She informs us that here the ocean was calm, and that there a river flowed into it ; here forests grew and flourished, and there volcanoes vomited forth lava, while mighty earthquakes heaved up mountains with convulsive throes. Such are the events that mark the world's history, and we now propose giving a short sketch of the various eras in its existence.

Hundreds of thousands of years ago, the earth, now so busy and full of life, rolled on its ceaseless course, a vast, desolate, and sterile globe. Day and night succeeded one another, and season followed season, while yet no living form existed, and still the sun rose upon arid, verdureless continents, and hot, caldron-like seas, on which the steaming vapor and heavy fogs sat like an incubus. This is the earliest period of which we gleam any positive record, and it is probable that, previous to this era, the universe was in a state of incandescence, or intense heat, and that by the gradual cooling of the globe, the external surface became hard, and formed a firm crust, in the same manner that molten lead, when exposed to the cold air, hardens on the surface. The vapors which previously floated around this heated mass, in like manner became partially condensed, and gradually accumulating in the hollows, formed the boiling seas which in after ages were destined to be vast receptacles teeming with life.

How long such a period continued it is impossible to say, and were we even able to number its years, we should in all probability obtain a total of such magnitude as would render us unable to form any accurate idea of its extent. Our ideas of time, like those of space, are comparative, and so immense was this single period in geological history, that any interval taken from human records would fail to present an adequate idea of it.

As might be expected, this era was marked by vast and violent convulsions ; volcanoes raged and threw up molten granite, earthquakes heaved and uplifted continents, seas were displaced and inundated the land, and still the earth was enveloped in vapor and mist, arising from the high temperature, and the light most probably penetrated only sufficiently to produce a sickly twilight, while the sun shot lurid rays through the dense and foggy atmosphere. Such a world must have been incompatible with either animal or vegetable life, and we accordingly find no remains of either in the rocks which belong to this early period ; their principal characteristic is a highly crystalline appearance, giving strong presumptive evidence of the presence of great heat.

After this era of desolation and gloom, we enter upon what is technically termed the "Transition period," and here we begin to mark the gradual preparation of the globe for the reception of its destined inhabitants. The change is, however, at first very slight, and there is evidence of frequent convulsions and of a high degree of temperature ; but the action of fire appears to have declined in force, and aqueous agencies are exerting themselves. The earlier portion of this formation is rendered peculiarly interesting by the fact, that during it the most ancient forms of life sprang

into existence. It is true that merely a few species of shell-fish, with some corals, inhabited the depths of the ocean, while the dry land still remained untenanted; nevertheless, humble and scanty as they were, we cannot fail to look with interest on the earliest types of that existence, which has subsequently reached such perfection in ourselves.

The presence of corals shows, that although the transition seas had lost their high temperature, yet they retained a sufficient degree of heat to encourage the development of animals requiring warmth. These minute animals possess the remarkable property of extracting from the elementary bodies, held in solution in the waters, the materials for forming new rocks. To the coral animalcule or polype we owe much of the vast limestone beds which are found in every part of the world, and many a vessel laden with the riches and productions of the earth finds a grave on the sunken reefs that are the fruit of its labors.

As ages elapsed, and the universe became better adapted for the reception of life, the waters swarmed with zoophytes and corals, and in the silurian strata, we find organic remains abundant; shell-fish are numerous and distinct in form, and in some instances display a very interesting anatomical construction. As an instance, we may mention the Trilobite, an animal of the crustacean order; the front part of its body formed a large crescent-shaped shield, while the hinder portion consisted of a broad triangular tail, composed of segments folding over each other like the tail of a lobster; its most peculiar organ, however, was the eye, which was composed of four hundred minute spherical lenses placed in separate compartments, and so situated, that in the animal's usual place at the bottom of the ocean it could see every thing around. This kind of eye is also common to the existing butterfly and dragon-fly, the former of which has 35,000, and the latter 14,000 lenses.

Continuing to trace the history of this ancient period, we reach what is called among geologists the Old Red Sandstone age. The corals, and the shell-fish, and the crustacea of the former period have passed away, and in their place we find *fishes*; thus presenting to us the earliest trace of the highest order of the animal kingdom—vertebrata. The plants in this system are few, and it would seem as if the condition of the world was ill-adapted for their growth. Another peculiar characteristic of this era is the state of calm repose in which the ocean appears to have remained; in many rocks the *ripple mark* left by the tide on the shores of the ancient seas is clearly visible; nevertheless, considerable volcanic action must have taken place, if we are to believe geologists, who find themselves unable to account otherwise for the preponderance of mineral matter which seems to have been held in solution by the waters.

We now pass on to the Carboniferous period, and a marked change at once strikes us as having taken place. In the previous era few plants appear to have existed; now they flourished with unrivaled luxuriance. Ferns, cacti, gigantic equisetums, and many plants of which there are no existing types, grew, and lived and died, in vast impenetrable forests; while the bulrush and the cane, or genera nearly allied to them, occupied the swamps and lowlands. This is the period when the great coal beds and strata of ironstone were deposited, which supply us with fuel for our fires, and materials for our machinery. The interminable forests that grew and died in the lapse of centuries were gradually borne down by the rivers and torrents to



the ocean, at whose bottom they ultimately found a resting place. A considerable portion of the land also seems to have been slowly submerged, as in some cases fossil trees and plants are found in an upright position, as they originally grew.

There is no period in geological history so justly deserving of examination as this. To the coal beds, then deposited, Great Britain, in a great measure, owes national and mercantile greatness. Dr. Buckland, in speaking of this remote age, remarks, in his *Bridgewater Treatise*, that "the important uses of coal and iron in administering to the supply of our daily wants, give to every individual among us, in almost every moment of our lives, a personal concern, of which but few are conscious, in the geological events of these very distant eras. We are all brought into immediate connection with the vegetation that clothed the ancient earth before one-half of its actual surface had yet been formed. The trees of the primeval forests have not, like modern trees, undergone decay, yielding back their elements to the soil and atmosphere, by which they have been nourished; but treasured up in subterranean store-houses, have been transformed into enduring beds of coal, which, in these latter ages, have been to man sources of heat, and light, and wealth. My fire now burns with fuel, and my lamp is shining with the light of gas, derived from coal, that has been buried for countless ages in the deep and dark recesses of the earth. We prepare our food, and maintain our forges and furnaces, and the power of our steam-engines, with the remains of plants of ancient forms and extinct species, which were swept from the earth ere the formation of the transition strata was completed. Our instruments of cutlery, the tools of our mechanics, and the countless machines which we construct by the infinitely varied applications of iron, are derived from ore, for the most part coëval with, or more ancient than the fuel, by the aid of which we reduce it to its metallic state, and apply it to innumerable uses in the economy of human life. Thus, from the wreck of forests that waved upon the surface of the primeval lands, and from ferruginous mud that was lodged at the bottom of the primeval waters, we derive our chief supplies of coal and iron, those two fundamental elements of art and industry, which contribute more than any other mineral production of the earth to increase the riches, and multiply the comforts, and ameliorate the condition of mankind.

This may justly be styled the golden age of the pre-adamite world; the globe having now cooled to a sufficient temperature to promote the growth of plants without being injurious to them, is for the first time clothed in all the rich verdure of a tropical climate. Doubtless the earth would have presented a lovely aspect, had it been possible to have beheld it; the mighty forests unawakened by a sound save that of the sighing of the wind; the silent seas, in which the new born denizens of the deep roamed at will; the vast inland lakes for ages unruffled but by the fitful breeze; all present to the mind's eye a picture of surpassing, solitary grandeur.

The creatures that existed, though differing from those of the previous age, were still confined to the waters; as yet the dry land remained untenanted. The fishes give evidence of a higher organization, and many of them appear to have been of gigantic dimensions. Some teeth which have been found of one kind, the *Megalichthys*, equal in size those of the largest living crocodiles.

There is one peculiarity respecting fossil fishes which is worthy of remark.

It is, that in the lapse of time from one era to another, their character does not change *insensibly*, as in the case of zoophytes and testacea; on the contrary, species seem to succeed species *abruptly*, and at certain definite intervals. A celebrated geologist, (Dr. Buckland), has observed, that not a single species of fossil fish has yet been found that is common to any two great geological formations, or that is living in our own seas.

Continuing our investigation, we next find the fruitful coal era passing away; scarcely a trace of vegetation remains; a few species of zoophytes, shells and fishes are to be found, and we observe the impression of footsteps, technically called *ichnites*, from the Greek *ichnon*, a footmark. These marks present a highly interesting memento of past ages. Persons living near the sea-shore must have frequently observed the distinctness with which the track of birds and other animals is imprinted in the sand. If this sand were to be hardened by remaining exposed to the action of the sun and air, it would form a perfect mould of the foot; this is exactly what occurred in these early ages, and the hollow becoming subsequently filled by the deposition of new sediment, the lower stone retained the impression, while the upper one presented a cast in relief. Many fossil footmarks have been found in the rocks belonging to this period.

It is evident from the fact of footmarks being found, that creatures capable of existing on dry land, were formed about this time, and we accordingly find the remains of a new order—Reptiles. These animals, which now constitute but a small family among existing quadrupeds, then flourished in great size and numbers. Crocodiles and lizards of various forms and gigantic stature roamed through the earth. Some of the most remarkable are those which belong to the genus *Ichthyosaurus*, or fish-lizard, so called from the resemblance of their vertebræ to those of fishes. This saurian Dr. Buckland describes as something similar in form to the modern porpoise; it had four broad feet, and a long and powerful tail; its jaws were so prodigious that it could probably expand them to a width of five or six feet, and its powers of destruction must have been enormous. The length of some of these reptiles exceeded thirty feet.

Another animal which lived at this period was the *Plesiosaurus*. It lived in shallow seas and estuaries, and would seem, from its organs of respiration, to have required frequent supplies of fresh air. Mr. Conybeare describes it as "swimming upon or near the surface, arching its long neck like the swan, and occasionally darting it down at the fish which happened to float within its reach."

This reptile, which was smaller than the *Ichthyosaurus*, has been found as long as from twelve to fifteen feet. Its appearance and habits differed from the latter materially. The *Ichthyosaurus*, with its short neck, powerful jaws, and lizard-like body, seems admirably suited to range through the deep waters, unrivaled in size or strength, and monarch of the then existing world; the *Plesiosaurus*, smaller in size and inferior in strength, shunned its powerful antagonist, and lurking in shallows and sheltered bays, remained secure from the assaults of its dangerous foe, its long neck and small head being well adapted to enable it to dart on its prey, as it lay concealed amid the tangled sea-weed.

This has been called by geologists the "age of reptiles;" their remains are found in great numbers in the lias, oolite and wealden strata. These creatures seem to form a connecting link between the fishes of the previous



era and the mammalia of the Tertiary age ; the Ichthyosaurus differed little from a fish in shape, and its paddles or feet are not unlike fins ; the Plesiosaurus, on the contrary, as its name denotes, partook more of the quadruped form. Dr. Buckland, in describing it, says : " To the head of a lizard it united the teeth of a crocodile ; a neck of enormous length, resembling the body of a serpent ; a trunk and tail having the proportions of an ordinary quadruped ; the ribs of a camelion, and the paddles of a whale." Besides these animals we find the Pterodactyle, half-bird and half-reptile ; the Megalosaurus, or gigantic lizard ; the Hylæosaurus, or forest lizard ; the Geosaurus, or land lizard, and many others, all partaking more or less of affinity to both the piscatory and saurian tribes.

Passing on now to the period when the great chalk rocks which prevail so much in the south-eastern counties of Great Britain were deposited, we find the land in many places submerged ; the fossil remains are eminently marine in character, and the earth must literally have presented a " world of waters" to the view. Sponges, corals, star-fish, and marine reptiles inhabited the globe, and plants, chiefly of marine types, grew on its surface. Although, however, a great portion of the earth was under water, it must not therefore be supposed that it was returning to its ancient desolation and solitude. The author whom we last quoted, in speaking of this subject, says : " The sterility and solitude which have sometimes been attributed to the depths of the ocean, exist only in the fictions of poetic fancy. The great mass of water that covers nearly three-fourths of the globe is crowded with life, perhaps more abundantly than the air and the surface of the earth ; and the bottom of the sea, within a certain depth accessible to light, swarms with countless hosts of worms and creeping things, which represent the kindred families of low degree which crawl upon the land."

This era seems to have been one of peculiar tranquillity, for the most part undisturbed by earthquakes or other igneous forces. The prevailing characteristic of the scenery was flatness, and low continents were surrounded by shallow seas. The earth is now approaching the state when it will be fit for the reception of man, and in the next age we find some of the existing species of animals.

It is worthy of observation, that at the different periods, when the world had attained a state suitable for their existence, the various orders of animal and vegetable life were created. In the " dark ages" of geological history, when the globe had comparatively lately subsided from a state of fusion, it was barren, sterile, and uninhabited ; next, the waters having become cool enough, some of the lowest orders of shell-fish and zoophytes peopled them ; subsequently, fishes were formed, and for ages constituted the highest order of animal life ; after this, we enter on the age of reptiles, when gigantic crocodiles and lizard-like forms dwelt in fenny marshes, or reposed in the black mud of slow-moving rivers, as they crept along toward the ocean betwixt their oozy banks ; and we now reach the period when the noblest order of animal life, the class to which man himself belongs, Mammalia, began to people the earth.

The world now probably presented an appearance nearly similar to what it does at present. The land, which in the chalk formation was under water, has again emerged, and swarms with life ; vast savannahs rich in verdure, and decked in a luxuriant garb with trees, plants, grasses, and shrubs, and inland lakes, to which the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the

hippopotamus, with many extinct races of animals, came to slake their thirst, form the principal characteristics of this period.

There is something peculiarly interesting in looking back to this early age, while Adam was yet dust. We picture to the mind's eye the gigantic *Deinotherium*, the largest creature of terrestrial life, raking and grubbing with its huge tusks the aquatic plants that grew in the pools and shallow lakes, or, as Dr. Buckland describes it, sleeping with its head hooked on to the bank, its nostrils sustained above water, so as merely to breathe, while the body remained floating at ease beneath the surface. We see its twin-brother in greatness, the *Megatherium*, as it comes slowly stalking through the thick underwood; its foot, of a yard in length, crushing where it treads, and its impenetrable hide defying the attacks of rhinoceros or crocodile. In the waters we behold the mighty whale, monarch of the deep, sporting in the pre-adamite seas as he now does amid the icebergs of the Arctic ocean; the walrus and the seal, now denizens of the colder climes, mingling with the tropical manati; while, in the forests, the owl, the buzzard, and the woodcock, dwelt undisturbed, and the squirrel and monkey leaped from bough to bough.

Arrived at the close of the pre-adamite history, after having traced it from the earliest ages of which we possess any evidence, down to the eve of human existence, the reflection that naturally presents itself to the mind is the strangeness of the fact, that myriads of creatures should have existed, and that generation after generation should have lived and died and passed away, ere yet man saw the light. We are so accustomed to view all creatures as created solely for human use, rather than for the pleasure of the Divine Creator, that we can at first scarcely credit the history, though written by the hand of nature herself; and the human race sinks into insignificance when it is shown to be but the last link in a long chain of creations. Nevertheless, that such, however humbling it may be, is the fact, we possess indubitable evidence; and when we consider, as Mr. Bakewell observes, "that more than three-fifths of the earth's present surface are covered by the ocean, and that if from the remainder we deduct the space occupied by polar ice and eternal snows, by sandy deserts, sterile mountains, marshes, rivers and lakes, that the habitable portion will scarcely exceed one-fifth of the whole globe; that the remaining four-fifths, though untenanted by mankind, are, for the most part, abundantly stocked with animated beings, that exult in the pleasure of existence, independent of human control, and in no way subservient to the necessities or caprices of men; that such is, and has been for several thousand years the actual condition of our planet; we may feel less reluctance in admitting the prolonged ages of creation, and the numerous tribes that lived and flourished, and left their remains imbedded in the strata which compose the outer crust of the earth."

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## THE REIGN OF TERROR.

**T**HE Reign of Terror! how many recollections of horror are associated with these words! Even at the distance of more than half a century, the imagination shrinks, the blood curdles at their sound; and centuries hence, that era will probably be regarded as exhibiting the "bloodiest picture in the book of time."

This name was applied to express that period in French history which intervened between the execution of Louis XVI, and the overthrow of Robespierre, to whom mainly it is supposed to have owed its origin. Some terrible scenes had previously been witnessed. In September, 1792, shortly after the overthrow of the monarchy, when the passions of the populace were excited to the highest pitch by the intelligence of the approach of the allied army, a band of assassins had at midday, while the assembly were sitting, proceeded to the various prisons of the metropolis, and there commenced the work of destruction upon the inmates. These receptacles had previously been filled with hosts of the highest society in the capital, who had been collected, in terms of a law named that of "suspicion," after a search of three days, during which no one was allowed to leave his residence, but a body of delegated municipal authorities proceeded from house to house and seized all who fell within its sweeping denunciation. Eighty monks, incarcerated in a temple, were first assailed, and most of them either struck down to the ground, or shot in the trees of an adjoining garden to which they fled for refuge. The great prisons of L'Abbaye, La Force, and the Conciergie, were the next objects of the assassins' fury, and in each the prisoners had their throats cut in hundreds. A sort of mock tribunal was established, and these homicides constituted themselves as judges. The wretched prisoner was brought out alone, and after a few questions from his accusers at one end of the court-yard, he was consigned to the knives of the assassins, who quickly despatched him at the other. Some telegraph or cant phrase was generally employed as the signal. At the prison of "L'Abbaye, for instance, the fatal sentence was the "*a la Force!*" and while the unsuspecting prisoner went on in the supposition that he was to be transferred to that stronghold of incarceration, he was suddenly assailed and put to death amid the laughter of the assassins, who amused themselves with his fearful misapprehension. During three days these terrible scenes proceeded; neither the legislature nor the civic authorities, in the meantime, offering the slightest interruption. The assassins, who did not exceed two hundred in number, throughout the whole period coolly went and returned to their meals, as if they had been engaged in their usual avocations. The women were worse than the men, and either joined actually in the massacre, or stayed at home to discharge the others' duties, that their husbands might, as they said with horrid coolness, "work in the Abbey." Nay, more, when the horrid "work" was completed, they actually had the audacity to proceed to the city hall and demand payment for their deeds—a demand with which the approving or terrified municipality were forced to comply; and the sums paid to these murderous

"laborers" for a long time remained a disgrace duly recorded in the civic records of Paris. It is impossible to calculate the number struck down on this occasion in Paris and Versailles, which, with one or two of the smaller towns in the neighborhood, followed the capital's example. By the most moderate calculation they have been reckoned a thousand or twelve hundred, though the list has been swelled to thrice the amount. Many persons of distinction fell during the massacre; among whom were the famous Madame de Barri, mistress of Louis XV., who died uttering the most piercing cries, and exhibiting the most abject, yet natural timidity, and the still more celebrated Princess de Lamballe, whose beauties and virtues had not been able to save her, as the friend of Maria Antoinette, from the fury of the mob. She was put to death under circumstances of peculiar atrocity, and her head was carried aloft on a pike, to be exhibited before the window of the queen in the Temple, attachment to whom seems to have been the least of her merits and the chief of her crimes.

But terrible as these scenes in 1792 were, far greater horrors were perpetrated—and in the name of justice, too—in the following year and the first half of 1794, by the sanguinary revolutionary tribunal which had been established by Danton. This dread triumvir himself perished by its agency in the early part of the last-named year, and while bewailing his fate, and that of an amiable woman, who a short time before had been united to him in marriage, he then deeply deplored his instrumentality in its erection, calling the Almighty to witness that he had never contemplated the crimes it had achieved: but his regret (as regret generally is) was unavailing. Shortly after its creation, the revolutionary tribunal commenced its proceedings with the most fearful rapidity, and under the direction of Fouquier Tinville—a sort of fiend in human shape, who laughed and jested with his victims while he sent them to the scaffold—whole hecatombs were soon destroyed. The slightest suspicion was fatal in the eyes of this atrocious wretch, and those who appeared in court as witnesses were frequently sent to the guillotine as criminals. Almost every one tried before him was at length condemned. The Girondists were struck down in a body, on the denunciation of Robespierre; the venerable Malesherbes, for defending the late king, was, with the whole of his family, consigned to the scaffold, to which he proceeded with a gay aspect, and an air so careless, that, chancing to stumble, he said, "it was a bad omen, and a Roman would have turned back." Danton and the whole of his associates were condemned, by the instigation of the same gloomy tyrant, who felt that that bold demagogue formed the chief obstacle to the dictatorship to which he now aspired. He exhibited less courage, and for a moment his feelings seemed about to give way, when he thought of his young wife, of whom he plaintively exclaimed, "I shall never see thee more!" but immediately recovering himself, and uttering the words "Courage, Danton!" he died with fortitude. Others of a less daring temperament showed still more tranquillity; and death at last became so common that it lost its terrors. Numbers proceeded to the guillotine uttering jibes and witticisms, often extemporaneous, but in other instances studiously prepared for the occasion; and the victims at last vied almost in coolness with the crowds, who daily held processions to the guillotine with as much indifference, or rather as much zest, as they would have regarded any exhibition at the theatres, which were never more crowded in Paris than during this dismal period.



While such was the state of affairs in the capital, matters were still worse in the provinces. In Paris, condemnation was made a jest, and the names of those who had received sentence were bawled out in a street list, named, with disgusting levity, "the evening paper," from which they frequently, for the first time, received intelligence of their approaching death on the morrow, or were said to have "drawn prizes in the holy lottery of the guillotine:" but in the rural districts, execution itself was made a theme of merriment. In the north, one Lebas, an apostate monk, the revolutionary judge, generally presided at the guillotine with the whole of his friends; and in the south, another, Le Bon (literally, "the good," and probably a name bestowed in jest), publicly entertained the executioner, as a distinguished functionary, at his table. Horrors scarcely inferior were perpetrated in the other districts of the republic, to which these sanguinary wretches were sent by the revolutionary tribunal in Paris, delegated with all its powers; and the guillotine at length became so much in demand, that it was proposed to have a set of what were termed "perambulating" machines of death constructed, to move from one part of the province to another, on wheels. Every being, who, by his opposition or wealth, had excited the indignation or cupidity of these emissaries, was guillotined. Were an old public functionary incorrect in his accounts, or a general unsuccessful with the enemy, he experienced the same fate. Westermann, a fierce republican general; Biron, a better soldier; Beauharnois, the husband of the amiable Josephine, Napoleon's future empress, and others of the same rank, were struck down; and the dreadful instrument was at last so familiarized, under the auspices of Fouquier Tinville, that Robespierre himself had to interfere, and declare "it was desecrated."

But even these scenes yielded in horror to the enormities committed in the western part of the kingdom on the unhappy peasantry of La Vendée. Shortly after the revolution broke out, resistance arose to it there. The inhabitants of that sequestered district, where the proprietors, generally inconsiderable, lived chiefly on their own domains, had escaped the severity of the ancient government. Instead of being ground down by the nobles, they lived on a footing of comparative equality, joining in their hunting parties, and participating in their hospitality; most of the proprietors cultivated their own grounds, or were but little removed in rank above their tenants. Here, accordingly, the new principles met with a steady opposition. Encouraged by their landlords, who were attached to the ancient *regime*, and instigated by their priests, who were averse to the modern oath, the peasants took the field in bodies, and resisted all who attempted to introduce revolutionary doctrines into their district. Success at first attended their arms. Their habits as hunters having made them experienced marksmen, and their knowledge of the country giving them great advantage over their opponents, they in the outset bore down the republican troops, who, while marching unsuspectingly through the forest ravines with which the district teemed, were frequently fired on by unseen foes, and while in confusion, struck down by the peasants, who then rushed from their ambuscade. Whole bodies of men were thus cut off; and the insurgents, becoming bolder by success, and assembling in larger numbers, at last defeated not only several republican generals, but captured Nantes and some adjacent towns. Under the direction of Larochejacquelein, a young and enthusiastic nobleman; Charrette, a wagoner; Stofflet, a barber;

Lescure, a pious gentleman; and D'Elbée, an old naval officer, they at last attempted higher aims, and in a body a hundred thousand strong, crossed the Loire with the design of marching upon Paris. But all their habits and tactics unfitted them for this purpose. They generally took the field for fighting in the same form as they had been accustomed to equip themselves for hunting; seldom carried above three days' provisions with them; and, whether successful or defeated, could rarely be retained for a longer period from home. In conflict, too, they were more successful in sudden attacks, than qualified to endure the steady and sustained action of regular troops. Hence, in this great excursion, they wholly failed in their object. In several engagements with the republican troops, after varied success, they were finally defeated; Larochejacquelein, their favorite, though not ablest leader, was struck down, and his followers fled, notwithstanding his inspiring war-whoop, "If I fly, shoot me; if I advance, follow me; if I fall, avenge me!" Most of their other generals, being accustomed to charge with their men, were either killed or disabled; and their wives and children having followed them in this excursion, a crowd of a hundred thousand wretched beings were at last found, defeated, dismayed, and disordered, on the banks of the Loire—assailed by the exasperated republicans on the one hand, cut off from their country by the river on the other; abandoned a prey to hunger, cold, wind, hail, and snow; and left to contend with horrors which disposed their superstitious imaginations to surmise the approaching termination of the world in their sinking cause.

It was upon these unhappy wretches, or such of them as had escaped those dangers, that the Jacobin fury was now to be wreaked; and though the peasants themselves had frequently been cruel in putting their prisoners to death, assuredly they never perpetrated such atrocities as those of which they were now the victims. An instrument which, like the guillotine, decapitated only one at a time, was of course wholly unable to act with sufficient promptitude for vengeance; and they were accordingly struck down in scores, and fifties, and hundreds, by musketry and grape-shot. Neither age nor sex was spared on these occasions, though the soldiers, the stern executioners, were frequently interrupted by their victims, when children, clinging to their knees. But even this mode of putting them to death became too tiresome at last; and when the earth was threatened with a pestilence from their putrifying carcasses, Carrier, an ex-friar, but now revolutionary pro-consul at Nantes, devised a more horrible plan for destroying them by water. Bands of wretched beings were conveyed in boats, and thrown into the lakes or rivers; and when some of them escaped, or attempted to escape, by swimming, the infernal expedient was chosen of carrying them out enclosed in vessels constructed with false bottoms and closed hatchways for the purpose, when the trap being withdrawn, the waters closed over all. Thousands were thus inhumanly drowned, and these *Noyades*, as they were termed, at last only ceased when the fishes were poisoned by gorging on human flesh, and the waters became not less pestilential than the air.

The public mind at last sickened under these accumulated horrors, and Robespierre's associates in the capital became alarmed by the apprehension that he designed to destroy them in turn, with the view of appropriating power to himself alone. The government of the country had, on the abolition of the monarchy, been vested in two committees—one of which,



the committee of public safety, watched over the general interests of the republic; while the other, named that of general safety, was intrusted with the superintendence of Paris alone. It was chiefly in the municipality that the interests of this body lay; but though confined to the capital, and made subservient to the committee of public safety, it had gradually extended its power, and by means of the affiliations or offshoots of the Jacobin club, which were dispersed over every village, acquired an influence throughout all France. And this was the body which Robespierre designed to render instrumental to his views when he had been dismissed from the committee of public safety, in conformity with the law which enjoined that two of the ten members should go out every two months in rotation, or when he had refused to reënter it in consequence of some quarrel with his colleagues.

To all it was apparent that the death struggle drew nigh, and both parties prepared for it with the full conviction that their lives were dependent on the issue. The committee trusted to the influence it possessed with the army, whose movements Carnot, the ablest and best of its members, wholly controlled: Robespierre confided in the support of the municipality, and, above all, in that of the Jacobin club. In the convention his power was also great; for that body invariably joined the stronger party, and it had recently supported a law which he brought in chiefly to justify the late massacres, and after passing which he had retired for a month from power, in order, as was supposed, to depopularize his colleagues by the odium of executing it. But this stratagem failed, if it were ever designed, and his retirement proved as fatal to him as a similar retreat had been to Danton. That bold leader of the populace had fallen a victim chiefly to the artifices which Robespierre had employed to undermine him at the Jacobins' in his absence; and he had died exclaiming that in three months his deceiver would follow him to the block. The prediction was fulfilled: the committee of public safety seized the same opportunity to destroy Robespierre, and with the same success. On the 26th of July, 1794, after a month's absence during which his followers had almost worshipped him as a divinity, he reappeared in the convention, and delivered one of those long, mysterious, and ominous addresses with which he was accustomed to usher in his sanguinary proposals. The assembly, slavish as ever, applauded him to the echo as before; but a different reception awaited him when he next day prepared to impeach three of his late associates in the committee of public safety, and several of their adherents in the chamber. These men had in the interval received intelligence of his intentions, and they prepared to defend themselves with the courage of despair. So soon as he renewed his speech, they boldly interrupted him by their hostile acclamations, and Robespierre's voice, for the first time, was silenced in an assembly where it always before had been heard with reverence inspired by dread. The chamber at first stood mute, like himself, with astonishment; but as the cries of his foes grew louder, and vociferations of "Down with the tyrant!" were heard, it prepared to adopt another course; and when Barrère, a profligate ex-noble, and member of the committee of public safety, who invariably ranged himself with the stronger, and on this occasion had prepared a speech for either side—drew from his pocket and coolly proceeded to deliver a studied report against Robespierre, the cowardly legislature no longer remained uncertain, but fiercely joined in the halloo that struck him

down. Foaming at the mouth, Robespierre withdrew, and hastened for safety and succor to his adherents in the municipality and Jacobin club.

But it was too late. His enemies knew that either his life or theirs must be extinguished in the struggle, and one or more of them had attended the chamber with the resolution of destroying either him or themselves if he carried his proposal. "Should it pass," said they, "we shall have no alternative but to blow out our brains;" and the legislature was soon convinced that its own members were in similar danger. A decree was quickly passed to outlaw him; but there was difficulty in getting parties to execute it; for Henriot, the commander of the Parisian guard, was an adherent of Robespierre's, and already at the town-hall by his side. But fortune, or the frailty of this associate, aided them. Henriot, when he attempted to take command of his troops, was so inebriated that he with difficulty retained his seat on horseback, and his soldiers either misunderstood his orders or refused to obey him. In these circumstances he rode back in dismay to the city-hall, and his cannoneers were easily persuaded by some members of the legislature to turn their guns from against it to the hostile edifice. A few adherents of the committee or chamber accompanied them, and boldly burst into the room where Robespierre and his associates were. Their triumph was easy: the confederates attempted no resistance; but some of them endeavored to escape by the windows, while others essayed to avoid a public execution by suicide. St. Just, a violent but disinterested fanatic, made this attempt and failed; his pistol snapped in the act, and was siezed before he could renew the effort. Couthon, a sanguinary wretch, who, though half dead with palsy, talked of death and murder in the blandest accents, had not courage to attempt it; and Robespierre's jaw was only shattered by a shot, but whether from his own hands or another's is uncertain. Henriot threw himself from a window, and was found concealed in a sewer. The younger Robespierre, a comparatively innocent man, whose affection for his brother alone betrayed him into danger, was one of the few who conducted himself with dignity, and prepared to die with tranquillity. The whole, amounting to about forty in number, were conducted to the hall of the convention, whence, being already outlawed, they were the next day sent to the guillotine. Robespierre passed the night on a miserable bench in a room adjacent, but though suffering with agony he refused to utter a single word. Next morning, amid the cheers and curses of the populace, among whom were many friends of his recent victims, he was conveyed to the scaffold; and though a momentary outcry escaped his lips when the executioner coarsely tore the bandage from his fractured jaw, he died, the last of his party, with fortitude. With his life the Reign of Terror terminated; and the convention, by whose abject submission it had mainly been caused, shortly afterward made way for a different set of men, and another order of things. The revolution, however, with its gloomy and appalling scenes, did not pass away without teaching mankind these invaluable lessons—that religion is essential to the prosperity of states, and that it is the interest as well as the duty of those in power to promote, by all means the happiness of the people.

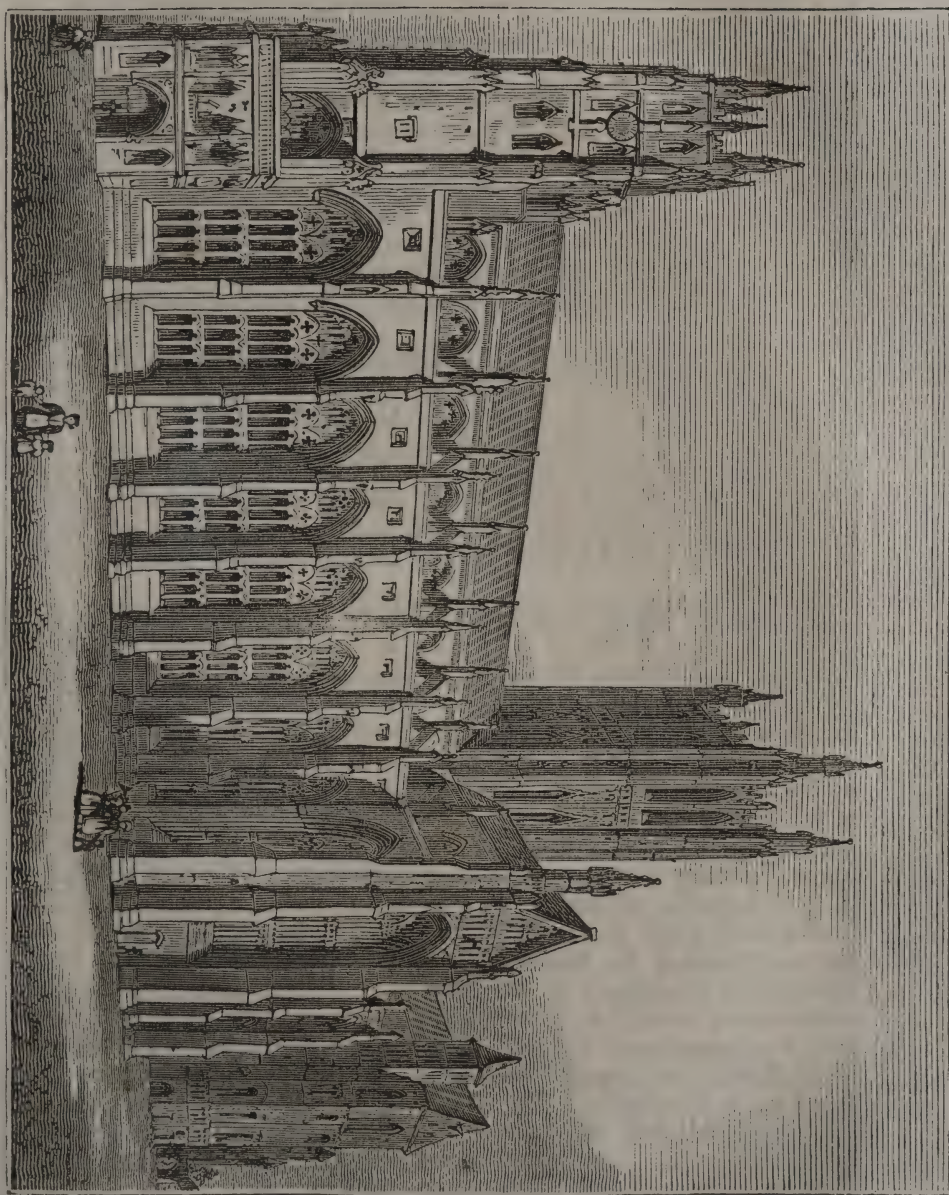


## CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

**I**T is certain that, during the Roman domination in Great Britain, Christianity had been generally established in the southern parts of the island, which were inhabited by a mixed population of Britons and Romans. Many of the Romans who came over to colonize the country after its conquest in the reign of the Emperor Claudius were, no doubt, Christians; and the general conversion of the natives within the subjugated territory most probably took place in the first or second century. It is most likely, also, that it was in part effected by the agency of missionaries who visited the island expressly for that purpose; although but little confidence can be placed in the story told by the old monkish historians about the preachers that were sent over by Pope Eleutherius to a British king of the name of Lucius, who is said to have flourished before the close of the second century, and to have been the first prince of his nation who received the new faith. No doubt can be entertained that churches were built in many parts of the country in the course of the three centuries during which it enjoyed peace and security under the Roman protection. Whatever buildings, or remains of buildings, are now found, which bear the impress of Christian civilization, and cannot be assigned to a date subsequent to the establishment of the Saxons, must have been erected during this era of tranquillity, when letters and the arts probably flourished to a degree which they scarcely again attained in the course of the next thousand years. The Saxon invasion swept away all this, by rolling over the country a tide not only of savage ignorance but of war and slaughter, which desolated a great part of the island for a century and a half. The reign of any thing like civilization did not recommence till towards the close of the sixth century. About this time, Ethelbert, king of Kent, married Bertha, the daughter of the French king Charibert; and out of this event arose the first introduction of Christianity into Saxon Britain. It is supposed to have been on the application of Bertha, who was herself a convert, and a lady of great piety and virtue, that Pope Gregory I. was induced to send over from Rome the celebrated Augustine and his forty followers, who arrived in the Isle of Thanet in the year 597, and were soon after permitted by Ethelbert to take up their residence in Canterbury, the capital of his dominions.

Bede tells us that there was already a building in the eastern quarter of the city, which long before had been used as a Christian church; and that this edifice was given by the king, after his conversion, to Augustine and his companions. There is every reason to believe that the church in question stood on the site of the present cathedral. It may have been built four or five centuries before, and must, at the least, have been two or three hundred years old. Having fallen into decay, it was enlarged and repaired under the direction of Augustine, who had been consecrated Archbishop of Canterbury; and who, having dedicated it to Christ, made it his cathedral. It hence derives its proper designation of Christ Church.

The building thus founded, or rather restored and amplified, by August-



CATHEDRAL—CANTERBURY.



time, subsisted till the year 938, by which time, however, partly in consequence of a recent attack of the Danes, it had become little better than a ruin. The walls, we are told, were uneven, and in some places were broken down, and the roof was in so threatening a state that the church could not be safely entered. Odo, who was then archbishop, bestowed considerable cost in the reparation of the fabric; but, in 1011, the Danes, in a new attack, burned down the roof which he had erected, and left only the walls standing. After Canute came to the throne, however, in 1017, its restoration was once more effected, the king having, it is said, contributed munificently to the expense. But the new disturbances, which arose after his decease, and especially the neglect and dilapidation to which it was exposed during the unavailing resistance of the Saxon Archbishop Stigand to the Norman Conqueror, had again reduced the structure to such a state, when Lanfranc succeeded to the see in 1070, that this prelate determined to rebuild it almost from the foundation. There is reason to believe, however, that even in this, the most complete reëdification which the church had yet sustained, the ancient walls were not entirely thrown down.

Lanfranc lived to complete his design so far as that the cathedral in his time was once more rendered fit for the services of religion, and presented the appearance of a finished building. Considerable additions were made to it, however, by Anselm and others of his successors; and even some parts which Lanfranc had built are recorded to have been taken down not long after his death, and reërected in a different style. Conrad, a prior of the adjoining monastery, in particular, made such improvements on the choir, that it is stated to have been for a long time after generally known by his name.

But, on the 5th of September, 1174, an accidental fire, which commenced in some houses on the south side of the church, and was carried by a high wind towards the sacred building, having seized upon the roof, soon reduced the whole once more to the bare walls. "The leads," says the old chronicler, Gervase, who was a monk of Canterbury, and flourished in the thirteenth century, "were melted, and the timber-work and painted ceiling all on fire fell down into the choir, where the stalls of the monks added fresh fuel in abundance." He also speaks of the walls, and especially the pillars, having been much scorched and injured; but it does not appear that they were actually thrown down by the violence of the flames. A great sensation was excited by this calamity, not only throughout England, but the whole of Christendom. The murder, or, as it was deemed, the martyrdom, of the famous Thomas à Becket, which took place in the cathedral of Canterbury on the 28th of December, 1170, had given an extraordinary sanctity to the building, and attracted to it crowds of pilgrims from every country of Europe. The celebrity and reverential estimation which it had thus acquired soon made the funds necessary for its restoration pour in abundantly. The most distinguished personages of the age eagerly offered their aid—many bringing their oblations in person. The king, Henry II., himself contributed largely. "In 1179," says Mr. Batteley in his additions to Somner's *Antiquities of Canterbury*, "Louis VII., king of France, landed at Dover, where our king expected his arrival. On the 23rd of August these two kings came to Canterbury, with a great train of nobility of both nations, and were received by the archbishop

and his comprovincials, the prior and convent, with great honor and unspeakable joy. The oblations of gold and silver made by the French were incredible. The king came in manner and habit of a pilgrim—was conducted to the tomb of St. Thomas in solemn procession—where he offered his cup of gold and a royal precious stone, with a yearly rental of 100 muids (hogsheads) of wine, for ever, to the convent, confirming his grant by royal charter, under his seal, delivered in form."

The rebuilding of the cathedral was commenced soon after the fire, and, the means being thus liberally supplied, was carried on for some years with great spirit. The direction of the work was entrusted to a French architect, William of Sens, who, however, only superintended it for the first four years, having then received an accidental injury which obliged him to relinquish his office. He was succeeded by an Englishman. In 1183, however, the stream of offerings having probably somewhat diminished, the operations were suspended by the monks, on the pretence that their funds were exhausted. The expedient had the desired effect. Contributions to the pious work poured in immediately in almost unprecedented abundance: and the receivers were enabled not only to complete their original design, but to add to it new features of magnificence and splendor. The body of the cathedral soon stood once more in a finished state; but many additions and alterations were made long after the main part of the work had been thus accomplished. In fact, the building might be said to be still only in progress when the Reformation broke out, and the king's mandate, on the dissolution of the religious houses, put a stop to its further decoration or enlargement, and left it in all material respects in the state in which we now see it.

From this detail it appears that the present cathedral stands mainly on the same foundation with the ancient British church which Augustine found in Canterbury on his arrival at the end of the sixth century, nor is it altogether impossible that some portion of that primitive edifice may still remain in the pile as it now exists. It is acknowledged on all hands that part of Archbishop Lanfranc's cathedral is still standing; and the vaults under the choir appear to be of a style of architecture anterior at any rate to the Norman Conquest.

The cathedral of Canterbury is built in the usual form of a cross, having, however, two transepts. Buttresses rising into pinnacles are ranged along the walls both of the nave and the transepts; and a square tower of great beauty ascends from the intersection of the western transept and the nave. Two other towers also crown the extremities of the west front; that to the north, which had been long in a ruinous state, and the upper part of which was removed many years ago, is now taken down from the foundation, and rebuilt.

The cathedral of Canterbury is very spacious. The following are its principal dimensions:—the length of the whole building from east to west, measured in the interior, is 514 feet; of which the choir occupies not less than 180 feet, being an extent unequaled by that of any other choir in England. The breadth of the nave with its side aisles is 71 feet; and its height 80 feet. The larger transept is 154, the smaller 124 feet, in length from north to south. The height of the great central tower, called the Bell-Harry steeple, is 235 feet; and that of the Oxford and Arundel steeples, at the north and south extremities of the west front, about 130 feet.



## LEOPARD HUNTING.

**A**LTHOUGH the leopard of South Africa is known among the Cape colonists by the name of *tiger*, it is, in fact, the real leopard—the *felis jubata* of naturalists, differing from the panther of North Africa in the form of its spots, in the more slender structure of its body, and the legs not being so long in proportion to its size. In watching for his prey the leopard crouches on the ground, with his fore paws stretched out and his head between them, his eyes rather directed upwards. His appearance in his wild state is exceedingly beautiful, his motions in the highest degree easy and graceful, and his agility in bounding among the rocks and woods quite amazing. Of their activity no person can have any idea by seeing these animals in the cages in which they are usually exhibited, humbled and tamed as they are by confinement and the cold of our climate.

The leopard is chiefly found in the mountainous districts of South Africa, where he preys on such of the antelopes as he can surprise, on young baboons, and on the rock badgers or rabbits. He is very much dreaded by the Cape farmers also, for his ravages among the flocks, and among the young foals and calves in the breeding season.

The leopard is often seen at night in the villages of the negroes on the west coast; and, being considered a sacred animal, is never hunted, though children and women are not unfrequently destroyed by him. In the Cape Colony, where no such respect is paid him, he is shyer and much more in awe of man. But though in South Africa he seldom or never ventures to attack mankind, except when driven to extremity (unless it be some poor Hottentot child now and then that he finds unguarded,) yet in remote places, his low, half-smothered growl is frequently heard at night, as he prowls around the cottage or the kraal. His purpose, on such occasions, is to break into the sheep-fold, and in this purpose he not unfrequently succeeds, in spite of the troops of fierce watch dogs which every farmer keeps to protect his flocks.

The leopard, like the hyena, is often caught in traps constructed of large stones and timber, but upon the same principle as the common mouse trap. When thus caught, he is usually baited with dogs, in order to train them to contend with him, and seldom dies without killing one or two of his canine antagonists. When hunted in the fields, he instinctively betakes himself to a tree, if one should be within reach. In this situation it is exceedingly perilous to approach within reach of his spring; but at the same time, from his exposed position, he becomes an easy prey to the shot of the huntsman.

The South African Leopard, though far inferior to the lion or Bengal tiger in strength and intrepidity, and though he usually shuns a conflict with man, is nevertheless an exceedingly active and furious animal, and when driven to desperation becomes a truly formidable antagonist. The Cape colonists relate many instances of frightful and sometimes fatal

LEOPARD AT BAY.





encounters between the hunted leopard and his pursuers. The following is a specimen of these adventures.

Two African farmers, returning from hunting the hartebeest, roused a leopard in a mountain ravine, and immediately gave chase to him. The leopard first endeavored to escape by clambering up a precipice; but being hotly pressed, and wounded by a musket ball, he turned upon his pursuers with that frantic ferocity peculiar to this animal on such emergencies, and springing on the man who had fired at him, tore him from his horse to the ground, biting him at the same time on the shoulder, and tearing one of his cheeks severely with his claws. The other hunter seeing the danger of his comrade, sprang from his horse and attempted to shoot the leopard through the head; but, whether owing to trepidation, or the fear of wounding his friend, or the quick motions of the animal, he unfortunately missed. The leopard, abandoning his prostrate enemy, darted with redoubled fury upon his second antagonist, and so fierce and sudden was his onset, that before the boor could stab him with his hunting knife, the savage beast struck him on the head with his claws, and actually tore the scalp over his eyes. In this frightful condition the hunter grappled with the leopard; and, struggling for life, they rolled together down a steep declivity. All this passed far more rapidly than it can be described in words. Before the man who had been first attacked could start to his feet and seize his gun, they were rolling one over the other down the bank. In a minute or two he had reloaded his gun, and rushed forward to save the life of his friend. But it was too late. The leopard had seized the unfortunate man by the throat, and mangled him so dreadfully that death was inevitable; and his comrade (himself severely wounded) had only the melancholy satisfaction of completing the destruction of the savage beast, already exhausted with the loss of blood from several deep wounds by the desperate knife of the expiring huntsman.

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## THE OUISTITI OR MARMOZET MONKEY.

**B**VERY large group of which the animal kingdom naturally consists, will be found upon examination to resolve itself into divisions of a subordinate character. It is to one of these divisions in the family *simiadiæ*—a family comprehending the monkey and ape tribes—that we invite attention. The *simiadiæ* are essentially natives of the hotter portions of the globe; they abound in the intertropical regions of Asia, Africa and America, and are expressly arboreal in their habits. Awkward on the ground, they display amongst the branches the most astonishing address and activity. Not only do the hands, fashioned like those of man, at least to a certain extent, possess the power of grasping, but the hind feet are hands also; they have a true thumb, opposable to the fingers, and possess in an equal, nay, superior degree the same power with which the anterior hands are so well endowed; hence Cuvier has termed these animals *quadrumanæ*, or four-handed. Like every other natural group, however, the *simiadiæ* are made up of a collection of minor groups, each having its dis-

MARMOZET MONKEYS.





tinguishing characteristics. This will at once be evident to any one who compares the orang—a climbing animal, the whole of whose organization adapts it for an arboreal abode, and for that only—with the baboon, which, though alert and active among the branches, is at ease even on the ground, where he scampers along on all fours like a dog. The Ouistiti, the subject of our present examination, forms one of the boundary groups of this family. It constitutes one of the forms of the American section of the *simiade*, a section characterized by most marked peculiarities. These we may briefly enumerate as consisting in the roundness of the skull, and the flatness or slight degree of projection which the facial portion exhibits,—in the lateral aspect of the nostrils which open on the sides of a broad flattened nose—in the absence of cheek pouches, and of the naked callous skin which, in the monkeys of the Old World, covers the tuberosity of the ischiatic bone, and in the possession (except in the ouistiti) of two additional molars in each jaw, the number of the teeth being in all thirty-six. It is among the forms of this section that we meet with the prehensile tail, given as an accessory organ of grasping, together with a departure in the structure of the hand from its perfect model. In the genus *ateles*, embracing the spider monkeys with prehensile tails, the thumb is wanting, or reduced to a mere rudiment beneath the skin; while in other genera the hands can no longer retain this appellation, being in fact like the fore-paws of a squirrel; such is the case with the ouistiti.

There is something in the general appearance and manners of the ouistiti which, together with its diminutive size, tends to produce a strong resemblance to the squirrel. It is true that the head is not squirrel-like—being round, and possessing the character of the American *simiade*; but the full, soft fur which clothes the body—the beautiful tufts of hair which ornament, in most species, the sides of the head—the long, bushy tail—the little fore-paws, and the crouching, though semi-erect posture assumed in eating, cannot fail to suggest the resemblance. How wide a difference is there between these little animals and the orang, with his long, powerful arms, or the ferocious baboons! The ouistitis inhabit the woods of the hotter portions of the American continent, and especially such as border the Amazon and other great rivers. Their beauty, their diminutive size, and the ease with which they become reconciled to captivity, render them great favorites even in their native regions, where they are sold, especially in the large towns, to the Spanish colonists at a considerable price. The smaller species, some of which may be entirely covered by a common-sized breakfast cup, are especially valued. In their native woods they feed upon fruits, insects, and small reptiles; indeed their teeth have decidedly an insectivorous character, the crowns of the molars presenting sharp conical elevations instead of rounded tubercles. These elegant creatures have little of that restless curiosity, that petulance and maliciousness, which are so conspicuous in the monkey-tribes in general; neither have they that activity for which these tribes are so remarkable. They do not bound from branch to branch with bold and vigorous leaps, yet are they quick and nimble in their actions, which more resemble those of a squirrel than a monkey. They produce two or three young ones at a birth, which they nurse with great care and attention. Their voice (exerted only in fear or anger) is a sharp, whistling cry, resembling the word *ouistiti*, whence their appellation.

## THE ALPINE MARMOT,

**A**N interesting little animal, belongs to the order *Rodentia* and the genus *Arctomys*, and is the species with which we are best acquainted. It is classed among rats by Linnæus, and in its appearance is compared by some writers to a diminutive bear or badger; but the disposition of its teeth, and its internal conformation, evince its closer affinity to the squirrel family.

The animal, when full grown, attains the size of a rabbit, measures about fifteen inches from the nose to the root of the tail, and two feet including the tail—and generally weighs about nine pounds. The characteristics of the genus to which it belongs are thus stated:—There are two incisors in each jaw, and ten grinders in the upper, and eight in the lower jaw; four toes, with a tubercle in place of a thumb on the fore-feet, and five toes on the hinder. The genus possesses no cheek pouches, like some others belonging to the same family; and the individual species we are considering has a thick and short body, short legs and very short round ears; the tail differs materially from that of the squirrel, being much shorter in proportion, and straight. The head is large and thick—flattened at the top; the nose blunt and thick, and is often carried erect when the animal sits. The muzzle is furnished with whiskers, and there are long hairs also above and below each eye. The upper part of the body may be generally described as of a rather light gray color, and the lower part of a light fawn color. The gray darkens towards the head and tail, and the latter becomes nearly black towards the extremity. The ears of a lighter gray than the surrounding parts. The toes of the hind-feet are whitish, and those of the fore-feet black. The circuit of the muzzle is white. The fur of the animal is generally long and soft. The hairs of the tail are thicker and coarser than those of other parts, while below the tail, and inside the limbs, the hair is very short, leaving those parts almost naked.

These marmots inhabit the higher parts of the Alps and Pyrenees, just below the regions of perpetual snow, and are also found in some parts of Asia. They avoid moist places, and prefer small and narrow valleys, exposed to the south, south-east or south-west. In such places they construct their domicils under the earth, each family living in its distinct habitation. The entrance is usually placed under some stony mass. In forming their dwellings they scoop out the earth with great dexterity and expedition. By throwing away a small part, and beating the remainder close, they form a very compact and solid passage. Their excavations may be compared to the letter Y, the proper dwelling-place or room being at the point where the limbs branch off. The extreme length of the entire excavation is about twenty feet when the branches are formed, and seldom less than eight feet when they are not. The first passage, which is barely wide enough to admit the animal, is about six feet in length; and the cell in which it terminates is round or oval, arched at top, and in its form may be compared to an oven. It is from three to seven feet in diameter, being



larger or smaller according to the number of the family, and very comfortably lined with hay and moss, of which a good stock is laid in during the summer. The use of the passages which branch off from this chamber, is rather a matter of conjecture.

In these burrows the marmot spends one half of the year in sleep. It retreats to them at a period which varies from the middle of September to the middle of October, according to the early or late approach of the winter. It remains shut up until March or April, and then removes the cement with which it had blocked up the entrance, by pulling it inward, and comes forth. At first they go down to the lower part of the mountains, where the season is more advanced, and on the approach of summer return to the neighborhood of their proper homes.

The marmot—organized for digging, destined for an obscure underground life, requiring for its nourishment only the herbs and roots which grow in the neighborhood of its habitation, and finding in its subterranean retreat the means of escape from most of its enemies—does not possess the power of many other animals of the order to which it belongs. It cannot leap like the rat, or climb like the squirrel. It walks but slowly, and raises itself to a short distance with effort; though it mounts with more facility than it descends. It rarely climbs, however, unless in the clefts of rocks, which it then does by the alternate use of its back and legs, in the same manner that chimneys are ascended by climbing-boys. Notwithstanding this want of agility, it does not appear that the marmots are often taken above ground, though they are usually out in sunshiny weather, in which they seem to have great enjoyment. Early in the morning the old marmots come out of their holes, and, when the sun is higher, bring out their young ones. The latter scamper about on all sides, chase one another and when disposed for more quiet enjoyment, seat themselves on their hind feet, and remain in that posture facing the sun, with an air expressive of great satisfaction. While these parties are thus amusing themselves, or busied in collecting food or materials with which to line their winter habitations, they are not unmindful of their personal safety. One of their number is posted as a sentinel upon a rock, or some other commanding spot, and if he perceives an enemy, or any unusual object that disquiets him, he sends forth a piercing cry, upon which the others retreat in all haste to their burrows, or, if these are too distant, ensconce themselves under the rocks. As they have great quickness of sight, and can discern an enemy at a great distance, they are rarely surprised.

The marmots never assume an offensive attitude towards other animals, and when apprehensive for their safety, their first consideration is retreat. When afraid of any serious invasion, they forsake their habitations in entire families, and wander from mountain to mountain until they find a spot where they deem it eligible to construct new retreats. When, however, they are driven to the last extremity, and retreat is impracticable, they defend themselves with great spirit even against men and dogs; and with their teeth, with which they can inflict very terrible bites, and with their claws, they assail all who approach them.

The Alpine marmots breed in the summer, and the litter usually consists of three or four young ones, and sometimes as many as six. It has not yet been ascertained whether the young, which with the parents compose a family, are the produce of two years or of one year only. If the latter,



ALPINE MARMOTS.





the number of the young indicates that there must be several broods in one year.

When the marmots retreat to their cells for their winter sleep they are generally very fat, and continue so for nearly three months; but after that they gradually decline, and are very thin by the time they awake. In their torpid state they lie in the hay close to one another, and rolled up like hedge-hogs, without exhibiting any appearances of life; but they may be revived by a gradual and gentle heat. From fifteen to sixteen are usually found together, and sometimes, but not often, two families are found in the same burrow; and still more rarely is one marmot found alone. During their winter sleep they are taken in great numbers, partly for the sake of their skins, which are used as furs, and partly for their flesh, which is then considered by the mountaineers as an agreeable article of food, but which is not relished by persons of more delicate appetite. The fat of the marmot, which tastes like hog's-lard, is considered by the inhabitants of the Alps to possess medicinal virtues. By the Savoyards they are chiefly taken for the purpose of exhibiting them through various parts of Europe, after they have been tamed. A young one is easily domesticated; and may with little difficulty be taught to sit upright, or to walk on its hind feet. It is sometimes even taught to dance with a stick between its paws, and to perform a great variety of feats. In its tame state the marmot will eat almost everything except flesh. When drinking, it raises its head at almost every sip, like a fowl, looking round with watchfulness and apprehension. It, however, drinks very little. Its most marked partiality is for milk and butter; and its strongest aversion is towards dogs. Unless carefully watched it is very destructive to all kinds of provisions, clothes, linen, and furniture; and the power of its teeth is such, that no cage that is not well guarded with iron can retain it in bondage. Tame marmots, if kept sufficiently warm, are able to dispense with their winter's sleep.

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## THE MANIS.



NIMALS of this genus present an appearance quite as extraordinary as that of the armadillo tribe; being covered on every part, except the belly, with exceedingly strong, large, and horny scales. These, when the animals roll themselves up, furnish a suit of armor by which they are defended much more effectually than even the armadillo is against the assaults of their enemies. This armor is a compensating circumstance in their structure, giving them the security which, from their want of teeth, their inability to grasp with their feet, and their perfectly harmless nature, they would otherwise want. The external covering, together with the unusual length of the body and tail, gives to these creatures an appearance so much resembling that of the lizard, that they have been called "scaly lizards." These animals have, however, no proper alliance with the lizard tribe; yet on a general view of the animal king-



THE MANIS.



dom, they may be admitted to be a link in the chain of beings which connects the proper quadrupeds with the reptile class.

With the exception of their scaly covering, the animals of this genus have much resemblance to the ant-eaters in their structure and general habits. Like them they live by thrusting their long tongue into the nests of ants and other insects, and then suddenly retracting it into their mouths and swallowing their prey. They are natives of India and the Indian isles. Our engraving represents the two species of the genus which are distinguished as long-tailed and short-tailed.

The long-tailed or four-toed manis is known in India by the name of the phatagen. It is of a very long and slender form. The head is small and the snout narrow. The whole body, except beneath, is covered with broad but sharp-pointed scales, which are striated, or divided by small channels like those of cockle-shells, throughout their whole length. The throat and belly are covered with hair. The tail is more than twice the length of the body and tapers gradually to the tip. The legs are very short: each foot is furnished with four claws, of which those of the fore-feet are stronger than those of the hind. Both the tail and the legs are scaled in the same manner as the body. The color of this animal is of an uniform deep brown, with a yellowish cast, and with a glossy polished surface. It grows to the average length of five feet, from the tip of the nose to the extremity of the tail.

The short-tailed or five-toed manis is generally called in India the pangolin, but in Bengal it is called, in the Sanscrit language, *vajracite*, or the thunderbolt reptile, on account of the excessive hardness of its scales, which are said to be capable of even striking fire like a flint. This species differs from the former in being of a much thicker and shorter form. The tail in particular is very differently proportioned, not being so long as the body; it is very thick at the base, and from thence tapering gradually, but terminating very obtusely. It has also five instead of four claws to each foot; of which those on the fore feet are of great strength, excepting the exterior one, which is much smaller than the rest. This species is scaled in the same manner as the preceding, but the scales differ in shape, and are much larger and wider in proportion to the body and tail. In the larger specimens of this species of pangolin the scales are smooth; but in those that are smaller they are slightly striated about half way from the base. In some specimens a few bristles are found between the scales; but in others this is not observed. The parts without scales are covered with hair. The animal is of a very pale yellow-brown color, with a surface as glossy as the preceding species. It is a native of India; and naturalists are disposed to consider that it is the same animal (the Quogelo of the negroes) which Des Marchais describes as a native of Guinea. He says, that it there grows to the length of eight feet, of which the tail is about four; that it lives in woods and marshy places, feeding on ants, which it takes by laying across their paths its long tongue which is covered with a viscid matter, so that the insects which attempt to pass it cannot extricate themselves. It walks very slowly with its claws bent under its feet, and would be the prey of every ravenous beast, had it not the power of rolling itself up, and opposing to its adversary a formidable defence of erected scales. The hungry leopard then vainly assails it with his powerful claws, and after much fruitless exertion is obliged to leave it in safety. The pan

golin endeavors to elude the vigilance of man by retiring into holes in the rocks, and into burrows of its own excavation, where the female produces and suckles her young. The negroes despatch the animal with blows of a stick, sell the skin to Europeans, and eat the flesh, which is white and savoury, and is highly relished by the natives.

It is stated in the Asiatic Researches that the Malabar name of this animal is *alungu*, and that the natives of Bahar call it *bajar-cit*, or the stone-vermin. In the stomach of the specimen examined by Mr. Burt, and described by him in the above work, about a teacupfull of small stones was found. There were indeed no traces of animal or vegetable substances in its stomach or intestines; and Mr. Burt inclines to the opinion that it is capable of digesting and deriving nourishment from mineral substances. It is more reasonable to conclude, however, that stones and gravel are merely swallowed by the pangolin to assist digestion. The tongue in the specimen (a small one) examined by Mr. Burt was about the thickness of the little finger at the root, tapering from thence to a point; and when dissected out, it was capable of being extended to a length more than equal to that of the animal exclusive of the tail.

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## BLACK AND GRAY SQUIRRELS.

**S**QUIRRELS, as might naturally be supposed, are exceedingly numerous in many of the aboriginal forests of North America, so that squirrel hunting is one of the favorite and more refined species of sporting amongst such as devote a day or two to "hunting frolics" on particular occasions; not solely for the sordid purposes of gain, but partly as a recreation from other and very different employments. Black and gray squirrels are the most commonly sought after; for, in addition to the fact of their being the most abundant, they are greatly esteemed as an article of food, and their skins are of more value than those of any of the other sorts. A party of six sportsmen will often kill 2000 or 3000 squirrels—of various sorts—in a two or three days' excursion; but your regular backwood's bear and wolf hunter rarely condescends to make war upon this species of small game. From all the experience I have had in the forests of North America, I am decidedly of the opinion that black squirrels are far more abundant than gray ones, but why this is the case I have never been able to arrive at any satisfactory conclusion; for in their general habits, and their partialities for those sections of the country that produce some peculiar and favorite food, there appears not the slightest difference; and since their size and strength are nearly equal, I can see no good reason for the great disparity in point of numbers. Both the black and gray squirrels are migratory and erratic in their habits; for at particular seasons of the year some sections of the forests will literally swarm with them, while at other times, in the same situations, but a few solitary stragglers may be seen, leaping from branch to branch in the tops of the tall forest trees.



The foresight (or by whatever name that instinctive peculiarity common to a large portion of the brute creation, may be designated) of the grey squirrel, is very remarkable; for although I have always been led to consider it more shy and timid than either the black or red ones which frequent the same localities, yet when a season of absolute famine has been approaching, I have observed that it would run greater risks in committing little depredations upon the granary or corn-crib than would either of the other species. In two or three seasons, when there was an entire failure of beechnuts, chestnuts, and the other sorts of food that these provident inhabitants of the wilderness chiefly subsist upon during the long winters, I had opportunities of becoming convinced of the fact as before stated. On the farm where I resided there stood a barn and granary within half a stone's cast of the bordering primeval forest, in which was stored a quantity of Indian corn, wheat, and other kinds of grain. Until the autumn was advancing, I had scarcely seen a gray squirrel in the neighboring woods; but in the month of October I observed a few of them paying occasional visits to my barn and granary; and, not wishing my grain to be stolen or destroyed with impunity, I shot two or three of the earliest intruders. On those occasions I invariably found them carrying off fifteen or twenty grains of Indian corn within the cavities of their cheeks; and being provided with comparatively small cheek-pouches wherein to stow away the pilfered property, it showed to what inconvenience they would subject themselves in order to procure a little stock as the means of sustaining life through a long and rigorous winter. Whether or not the few that had first visited my premises had communicated the intelligence to their tribe that my barn was stored with such food as they might subsist upon during the approaching famine, of course I have no means of knowing; however, by the early part of November there were several scores of them paying their daily respects to my corn crib and wheat bin. A few red ones, and occasionally a black one or two, would resort to the same scene of plunder; but I found that they were more intent upon making a meal on the spot, than upon carrying away a necessary supply for the approaching winter. At this time the gray ones were so numerous, and audacious too, that when I was not at leisure, or felt no inclination to make war upon them with my gun, I had to place a boy as a sentinel, to scare them back into the woods, which he sometimes found great difficulty in effecting. In the springs succeeding those seasons of famine, I found hardly any red or black squirrels in the adjoining woods—they had evidently perished through absolute want; while a number of the gray ones, which had been so fortunate as to escape my gun, and had succeeded in laying in a winter's supply at my expense, might be seen springing from branch to branch, as agile and shy as they had been before the approach of winter; and I could not help blaming myself for having denied a small and temporary pittance to so many of my graceful, sagacious, and provident neighbors.

Although apparently not well adapted for swimming, yet both gray and black squirrels, in their migratory excursions, will venture across lakes that are one or two miles wide, as well as the largest of the American rivers. In these adventurous exploits they generally take advantage of a favorable breeze, in which case the wind acts upon their elevated tails, thereby rendering the excursion both quicker and less laborious. In the latter part of the summer I have frequently witnessed black squirrels crossing the



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Niagara River in considerable numbers; and I always remarked that they swam across when the morning first began to dawn. On reaching the opposite shore they would appear greatly fatigued, and if unmolested, would take a pretty long rest preparatory to their setting off for the neighboring woods, whither they were apparently led by the wonderful power of instinct.

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## THE BADGER.

**N**O very minute investigation is needed to satisfy us that the progress of cultivation in any country must have considerable influence on the habits of the various tribes of its indigenous animals. Some in time come to be exterminated, and others exist in greatly diminished numbers. The climate of England is just as suitable to them, but it is now several centuries since the wolf, and more recently the wild-cat, became extinct. Animals which are carnivorous and destructive to flocks and herds are hunted down, and those which can only find security in the recesses of vast woods fall easier and more frequent victims to their pursuers as the country becomes cleared up. Some are destroyed for the value of their skins, until the scarcity which ensues renders it necessary to resort to other countries for the supply. Thus war is made against animals which are perfectly harmless, as well as those which are really of destructive and noxious habits. In the course of time, the breed of animals whose existence is an object of anxiety to sportsmen and the lovers of the chase, can only be preserved in plantations, gorse-covers, or other sheltered and protected places, in which they are carefully guarded from indiscriminate pursuit. On the other hand, various animals multiply and spread themselves over the country in proportion as its richness and abundance are increased by an extended and improving agriculture. It is from this cause that the pheasant, which was scarcely known in Scotland at one period, is now found as frequently as in many parts of South Britain. The badger would perhaps have been long since extinct in England but for the solitary life which it leads and its nocturnal habits. Its skin is of considerable value, and its flesh, at least the ham, is palatable, and resembles bear's flesh, for which a relish has always been affected or felt by sportsmen-epicures. In China the badger may be seen in the meat-markets by dozens.

By Linnæus and the naturalists before his day, the badger was classed in the same genus as the bear. But the Linnæan arrangement has been broken into sections and secondary groups, in consequence of the discovery of many new species of animals within the last half-century. Comparative anatomy has been more generally and closely studied; and new and more scientific principles, deduced from this source, have been applied practically on a large scale by naturalists who have undertaken to investigate the general economy and habits of animals. The glutton, badger, and raccoon,

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formerly placed with the bear genus, have been formed into distinct genera, this classification depending upon certain peculiarities of habit or structure. The badger, however, belongs, like the bear, to the class of plantigrade animals, the formation of the extremities compelling it to rest upon the whole sole in standing or walking; but while this peculiarity in the badger points out its connection with the same family as the bear, yet it is separated from the bear by its dental formation. The influence of this part of the formation of an animal is so important as generally to affect its habits and modes of life. If the teeth are capable of cutting and tearing flesh, it must be endowed with activity, energy, or cunning, to enable it to obtain animal food. The dental system in the badger is adapted for masticating vegetable substances, and when in confinement it shows a marked preference to this kind of food. In its natural state it lives chiefly upon roots, fruits, insects, and frogs; and it is likewise destructive of the eggs and young of pheasants, partridges, and other birds which build their nests on the ground. Occasionally it attacks the nest of the wild bee, plundering the store of honey without dread of the sting of the bee, which cannot penetrate the thick skin of the badger, even if the long hair of the animal were not sufficient protection.

The badger is about the size of a middling dog, but its body being broader and flatter, and supported by short legs, it stands much lower than a dog. The external characteristics of the animal are—head long and pointed, ears almost concealed in the hair of the head, and the tail so short that it scarcely reaches to the middle of the hind legs; the hair trailing along the ground on each side as the animal moves; color, a sandy gray; yellow towards the roots, blueish brown in the middle, and of a deeper yellow at the tips, which mixture of deep brown and pale yellow combined gives a gray appearance to the color of the badger.

The feet of the badger are furnished with powerful claws, and the legs being short and muscular, it naturally makes a subterranean habitation. When attempted to be dug out it proceeds from one point to another with so much activity, forming behind it a sort of outwork of earth, that it is difficult to be dug out. The formation of the feet also equally well fits it for obtaining roots as food. The badger prefers a sandy or light gravelly soil in which to make his burrow, which has one external entrance, leading into different chambers, and terminating in a circular one at the extremity. This latter is lined comfortably with dry grass and hay, and here the animal spends the live-long day in repose, moving out only at night in search of food. The badger leads the most solitary and quiet life, not being found in company even with the females of his own species. Sleeping all day long, rolled up on its bed of warm hay, appears to agree singularly well with it, as it is always fat. Though invariably choosing the most secret recesses of the woods for its abode, where, if anywhere, it could remain in peace, the badger is a scarce animal. The number of its young is from three to five annually at one birth. They are suckled for five or six weeks, and then taught to shift for themselves. Their numbers are kept down by various means; moonlight nights, and when they leave their burrows for food, affording the best opportunities of pursuing and destroying them. Though harmless, the badger, when attacked, shows great resolution and courage, and is no mean antagonist, grappling with a dog of twice its own weight; and from the manner in which the under-jaw is joined to the skull,

keeping a firm hold with its teeth. The "sport" of badger-baiting was therefore one in which only the most brutal mind could find gratification. When the young are taken they may be easily tamed, and evince much docility and playfulness. No treatment, however kind, can change the character of the adult animal.

The skin of the badger is not without value in commerce. It makes excellent pistol-holsters, and the hair is used in painters' brushes, and as trimmings for articles of dress.

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## THE BEAVER.

**M**UCH that is false and exaggerated has found its way into the common descriptions of the habits of these animals; and the really extraordinary qualities which the species display, have been referred to an intelligence approaching that of the human race. The singular actions of the beaver are suggested by instinct alone—the same instinct which guides the ant and the bee. Each individual beaver is precisely the same in its faculties as another; they are all untaught—they are all incapable of teaching—they all remain the same in point of intelligence from generation to generation.

The exaggeration, which absurdly prevails with regard to the habits of the beaver, may be referred to unavoidable causes. The species are exceedingly timid and vigilant, and invariably labor in the night time. Thus, few persons, competent to observe them accurately, have had the opportunity of doing so. The greater part of our information is derived from the fur-traders and Indians; and these men are ignorant and credulous, deceiving themselves and deceiving others. The best account we have seen of the habits of the beaver is that by Dr. John Godman, Professor of Natural History in the Franklin Institute of Pennsylvania.

The general aspect of the beaver, at first view, would remind one of a very large rat, and seen at a little distance it might be readily mistaken for the common muskrat. But the greater size of the beaver, the thickness and breadth of its head, and its horizontally flattened, broad and scaly tail, render it impossible to mistake it, when closely examined, for any other creature.

In a state of captivity or insulation, the beaver is a quiet or rather stupid animal, evincing about as much intelligence as a tamed badger, or any other quadruped which can learn to distinguish its feeder, come when called, or grow familiar with the inmates of the house where it is kept. It is only in a state of nature that the beaver displays any of those singular modes of acting which have so long rendered the species celebrated. Their extraordinary instincts are applied to two principal objects: 1. To secure a sufficient depth of water to prevent it from being frozen to the bottom; 2. To construct huts, in which they pass the winter.





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If beavers choose a spot for their residence where the water is not of sufficient depth, they set about obviating the inconvenience by building a dam. The materials used for the construction of their dams are trunks and branches of small birch, mulberry, willow, poplar, &c. They begin to cut down their timber for building early in the summer, but their edifices are not commenced until about the middle or latter part of August, and are not completed until the beginning of the cold season. The strength of their teeth and their perseverance in this work may be fairly estimated by the size of the trees they cut down. Dr. Best informs us that he has seen a mulberry-tree, eight inches in diameter, which had been gnawed down by the beaver. Dr. Godman saw, while on the banks of the Little Miami river, several stumps of trees, which had evidently been felled by these animals, of at least five or six inches in diameter. These are cut in such a manner as to fall into the water, and then floated towards the site of the dam or dwellings. Small shrubs, &c. cut at a distance from the water, are dragged with their teeth to the stream, and then launched and towed to the place of deposit. At a short distance above a beaver-dam the number of trees which have been cut down appears truly surprising, and the regularity of the stumps which are left, might lead persons unacquainted with the habits of the animal to believe that the clearing was the result of human industry.

The figure of the dam varies according to circumstances. Should the current be very gentle, the dam is carried nearly straight across; but when the stream is swiftly flowing, it is uniformly made with a considerable curve, having the convex part opposed to the current. Along with the trunks and branches of trees they intermingle mud and stones, to give greater security; and when dams have been long undisturbed and frequently repaired, they acquire great solidity, and their power of resisting the pressure of water and ice is greatly increased by the willow, birch, and other cuttings occasionally taking root, and eventually growing up into something of a regular hedge. The materials used in constructing the dams are secured solely by the resting of the branches, &c., against the bottom, and the subsequent accumulation of mud and stones, by the deposit of the stream or by the industry of the beavers.

The dwellings of the beaver are formed of the same materials as their dams, and are very rude, though strong, and adapted in size to the number of their inhabitants. These are seldom more than four old and six or eight young ones.

When building their houses, they place most of the wood crosswise and nearly horizontally, observing no other order than that of leaving a cavity in the middle. Branches which project inward are cut off with their teeth and thrown among the rest. The houses are by no means built of sticks first and then plastered, but all the materials, sticks, mud, and stones, if the latter can be procured, are mixed up together, and this composition is employed from the foundation to the summit. The mud is obtained from the adjacent banks or bottom of the stream or pond near the door of the hut. The beaver always carries mud and stones by holding them between his fore-paws and throat.

Their work is all performed at night, and with much expedition. When straw or grass is mingled with the mud used by them in building, it is an accidental circumstance, owing to the nature of the spot whence the mud



was taken. As soon as any part of the material is placed where it is intended to remain, they turn round and give it a smart blow with the tail. The same sort of blow is struck by them upon the surface of the water when they are in the act of diving.

The outside of the hut is covered or plastered with mud late in the autumn, and after frost has begun to appear. By freezing it soon becomes almost as hard as stone, effectually excluding their great enemy, the wolverene, during the winter. Their habit of walking over the work frequently during its progress, has led to the absurd idea of their using the tail as a trowel. The habit of flapping with the tail is retained by them in a state of captivity, and, unless it be in the acts already mentioned appears designed to effect no particular purpose. The houses, when they have stood for some time, and been kept in repair, become so firm from the consolidation of all the materials, as to require great exertion and the use of the ice chisel, or other iron instruments, to be broken open. The laborious nature of such an undertaking may be easily conceived, when it is known that the tops of the houses are generally from four to six feet thick at the apex of the cone. Hearne relates having seen one instance in which the crown or roof of the hut was more than eight feet in thickness.

The door or hole leading into the beaver-hut is always on the side farthest from the land, and is near the foundation of the house, or at a considerable depth under water. This is the only opening into the hut, which is not divided into chambers.

All the beavers of a community do not coöperate in the fabrication of houses for the common use of the whole. Those who are to live together in the same hut, labor together in its construction, and the only affair in which all seem to have a joint interest, and upon which they labor in concert, is the dam, as this is designed to keep a sufficient depth of water around all the habitations.

In situations where the beaver is frequently disturbed and pursued, all its singular habits are relinquished, and its mode of living changed to suit the nature of circumstances, and this occurs even in different parts of the same rivers. Instead of building dams and houses, its only residence is then in the banks of the stream, where it is now forced to make a more extensive excavation, and be content to adopt the manners of a muskrat. More sagacity is displayed by the beaver in thus accommodating itself to circumstances, than in any other action it performs. Such is the caution which it exercises to guard against detection, that were it not for the removal of small trees, the stumps of which indicate the sort of animal by which they have been cut down, the presence of the beaver would not be suspected in the vicinity. All excursions for the sake of procuring food are made late at night, and if it pass from one hole to another during the day-time, it swims so far under water as not to excite the least suspicion of the presence of such a voyager. On many parts of the Mississippi and Missouri, where the beaver formerly built houses according to the mode above described, no such works are at present to be found, although beavers are still to be trapped in those localities.

These animals also have excavations in the adjacent banks, at regular distances from each other, which have been called *washes*. These excavations are so enlarged within, that the beaver can raise his head above water, in order to breathe, without being seen, and when they are dis-

turbed at their huts, they immediately make their way under water to these washes.

The beaver feeds principally upon the bark of the aspen, willow, birch, poplar, and occasionally the alder, but it rarely resorts to the pine tribe, unless from severe necessity. They provide a stock of wood from the trees mentioned, during the summer season, and place it in the water opposite the entrance to their houses. They also depend, in a great degree, upon the large roots (of the *nuphar luteum*) which grow at the bottom of the lakes, ponds, and rivers, and may be procured at all seasons.

The number of young produced by the beaver at a litter is from two to five. The young beavers whine in such a manner as closely to imitate the cry of a child. Like the young of most other animals they are very playful, and their movements are peculiarly interesting, as may be seen by the following anecdote, related in the narrative of Capt. Franklin's perilous journey to the shores of the Arctic Sea:—"One day, a gentleman, long resident in the Hudson's Bay country, espied five young beavers sporting in the water, leaping upon the trunk of a tree, pushing one another off, and playing a thousand interesting tricks. He approached softly under cover of the bushes, and prepared to fire on the unsuspecting creatures, but a nearer approach discovered to him such a similitude betwixt their gestures and the infantile caresses of his own children, that he threw aside his gun and left them unmolested."

The beaver swims to considerable distances under water, but cannot remain for a long time without coming to the surface for air. They are therefore caught with greater ease, as they must either take refuge in their vaults or washes in the bank, or seek their huts again for the purpose of getting breath. They usually, when disturbed, fly from the huts to these vaults, which, although not so exposed to observation as their houses, are yet discovered with sufficient ease, and allow the occupant to be more readily captured than if he had remained in the ordinary habitation.

To capture beavers residing on a small river or creek, the Indians find it necessary to stake the stream across to prevent the animals from escaping, and then they try to ascertain where the vaults or washes in the banks are situated. This can only be done by those who are very experienced in such explorations. The hunt takes place in winter, because the animal's fur is then in the best order. The hunter is furnished with an ice chisel lashed to a handle four or five feet in length; with this instrument he strikes against the ice as he goes along the edge of the banks. The sound produced by the blow informs him when he is opposite to one of these vaults. When one is discovered, a hole is cut through the ice of sufficient size to admit a full-grown beaver, and the search is continued until as many of the places of retreat are discovered as possible. During the time the most expert hunters are thus occupied, the others with the women are busy in breaking into the beaver-houses, which, as may be supposed from what has been already stated, is a task of some difficulty. The beavers, alarmed at the invasion of their dwelling, take to the water and swim with surprising swiftness to their retreats in the banks, but their entrance is betrayed to the hunters watching the holes in the ice, by the motion and discoloration of the water. The entrance is instantly closed with stakes of wood, and the beaver, instead of finding shelter in his cave, is made prisoner and destroyed. The hunter then pulls the animal out, if within reach, by the



introduction of his hand and arm, or by a hook designed for this use, fastened to a long handle. Beaver-houses found in lakes or other standing waters offer an easier prey to the hunters, as there is no occasion for staking the water across.

The number of beavers killed in the northern parts of America is exceedingly great, even at the present time, after the fur trade has been carried on for so many years, and the most indiscriminate warfare waged uninterruptedly against the species. In the year 1820, sixty thousand beaver skins were sold by the Hudson's Bay Company alone.

It is a subject of regret that an animal so valuable and prolific should be hunted in a manner tending so evidently to the extermination of the species, when a little care and management on the part of those interested might prevent unnecessary destruction, and increase the sources of their revenue.

In a few years, comparatively speaking, the beaver has been exterminated in all the Atlantic and in the western States, as far as the middle and upper waters of the Missouri; while in the Hudson's Bay possessions they are becoming annually more scarce, and the race will eventually be extinguished throughout the whole continent.

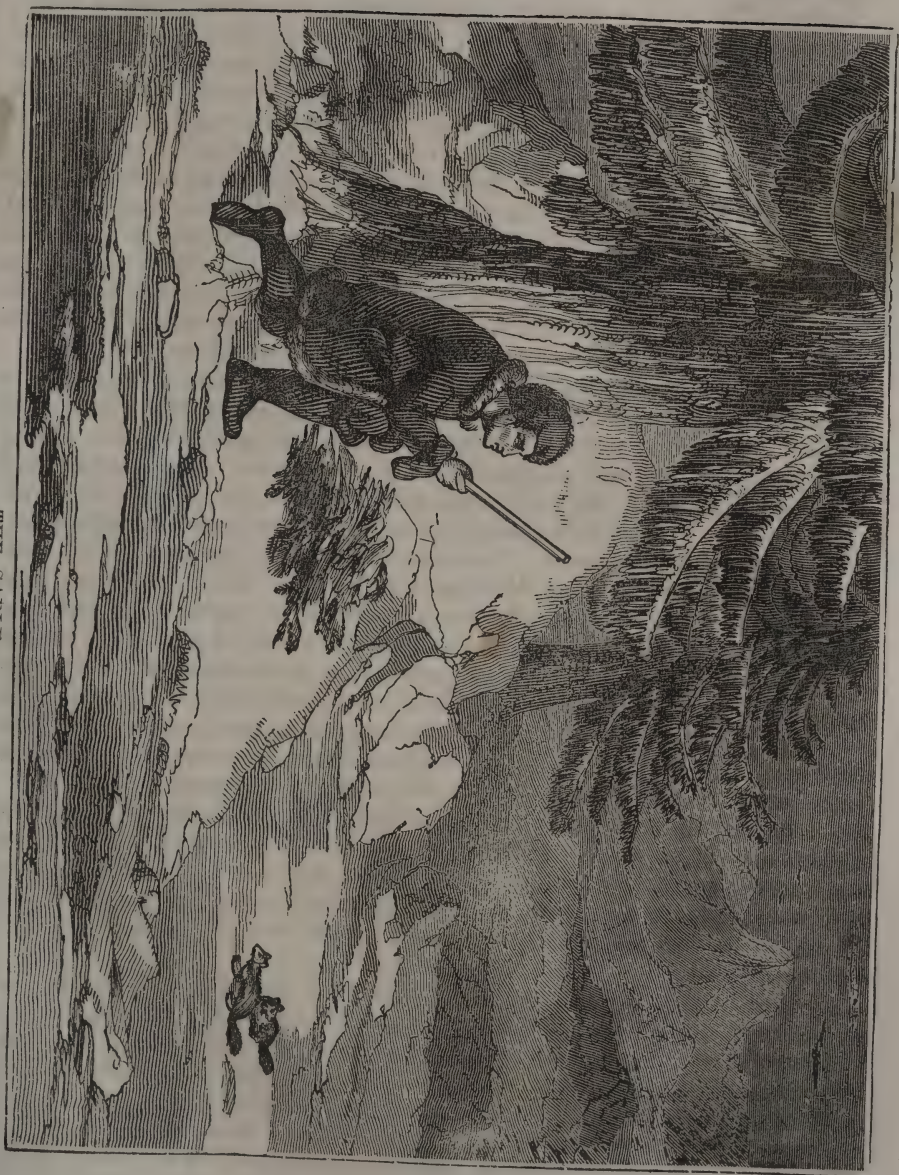
The Indians inhabiting the countries watered by the tributaries of the Missouri and Mississippi, take the beavers principally by trapping, and are generally supplied with steel traps by the traders, who do not sell, but lend or hire them, in order to keep the Indians dependent upon themselves, and also to lay claim to the furs which they may procure. The business of trapping requires great experience and caution, as the senses of the beaver are very keen, and enable him to detect the recent presence of the hunter by the slightest traces. It is necessary that the hands should be washed clean before the trap is handled and baited, and that every precaution should be employed to elude the vigilance of the animal. The bait which is used to entice the beavers is prepared from the substance called castor (*castoreum*), obtained from the glandulous pouches of the male animal, which contain sometimes from two to three ounces.

During the winter season the beaver becomes very fat, and its flesh is esteemed by the hunters to be excellent food. But those occasionally caught in the summer are thin, and unfit for the table. They lead so wandering a life at this season, and are so much exhausted by the collection of materials for building, or the winter's stock of provisions, as well as by suckling their young, as to be generally at that time in very poor condition.

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## THE SABLE.

**T**HIS animal, which is so much valued for its fur, belongs to the same genus with the common marten, which it greatly resembles in form, and it is nearly of the same size. They are of that class of animals which are called *vermiform*, on account of the great length of their bodies and shortness of their legs, which enables them to pass through very small



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apertures. The head of the sable is small and oval, with short, round ears and long whiskers. The feet are large, each having five toes, furnished with white claws, which are short, hooked, and very hard pointed. This animal is distinguished from others of the same genus, by having the fur extended to the extremities of the toes, and even under them. The tail is somewhat bushy; it is five inches long, but with the hair it measures eight inches. The body is nearly of equal diameter throughout; and in proper season is thickly covered with hair, the color of which is black at top and cinerous at the bottom; the throat is cinerous, sometimes white, yellow, or spotted, and the edges of the ears are yellowish. Sometimes the hair has a tawny cast, for in spring, after shedding the coat, the color varies. The length of the animal is about eighteen inches, exclusive of the tail.

The chief residence of the sable is in Asia, beginning at the Uralian chain, and becoming more and more plentiful in the progress eastward, and more valuable in the advance to the north. None are found to the northeast of the Anadir, nor in any parts destitute of trees. They prefer vast forests, especially those of fir, in which the furs of the greatest beauty are found. They are frequent in Kamtschatka, and are met with in the Kurile Isles. Their proper limit extends from 50° to 58° north latitude.

The sable lives in holes in the earth, or beneath the roots of trees; sometimes, like the marten, forming nests in the trees, and skipping with great agility from one to another. It is very lively, and much in motion during the night, but generally sleeps in the day. It goes abroad to seek its prey during the night, if the weather be clear and fine; but if otherwise it retires to sleep. It is very courageous and will attack and destroy animals of a larger size than itself. Weasels, squirrels, and hares, form its usual prey in summer; in winter it is said to feed on birds, particularly partridges; it will also eat fruit, especially that of the service-tree, and it is, indeed, stated that fruit and berries form the principal part of its subsistence in autumn. During this season the furs are at the worst, their vegetable diet causing their skins to itch, when they rub off their fur against the trees. When very unsuccessful in its own researches for food, and therefore pressed by hunger, the sable follows bears, gluttons, and wolves, as the jackal does the lion, to partake of the overplus of their meals.

The females, towards the end of March or the beginning of April, produce from three to five young, which they suckle about four or five weeks. It seems that the sable is capable of being rendered very docile. Steller relates an instance of one that was domesticated in the palace of the Archbishop of Tobolsk, which used to wander about the city and visit the neighbors.

It necessarily results from the costliness of the fur, that men have not been deterred by any ordinary difficulties in the pursuit of the animal which affords it. Indeed, there is no article of luxury to obtain which more distress is endured or more peril incurred, than in the chase of this animal, which is carried on in the depth of winter—among mountains covered with ice, and in the deepest snows—in the coldest and most desolate regions to which man has yet penetrated. The hunters are often overcome by the combined operation of fatigue, cold, and hunger, and perish in those remote solitudes. Formerly, in the Russian Empire, the hunting of the sables was a task imposed upon the exiles who were banished to Siberia. As that country became more populous, the animals retired into the remote forests

and mountains; and it was the further pursuit of them which led to the discovery of Eastern Siberia. We suppose that an account of the manner in which the hunting of the sable is at present conducted in that country will not be without interest to our readers.

The sable-hunters form themselves into parties of from five to forty each. The last subdivides into smaller parties, each of which has a leader; but there is one person who directs and controls the whole. Each party is furnished with a small covered boat, laden with provisions; they are also furnished with a vessel to bake their bread in, and there is a dog and a net to every two men. Each party is provided with an interpreter for the country which it intends to penetrate. Every party then sets out in the direction prescribed by the leader. They go against the stream of the rivers, drawing their boats up until they arrive in the hunting country. There they stop, build themselves huts, and remain until the rivers are frozen and the season commences. Before they begin the chase their leader assembles them together, when they join in prayer to God for success and safety, and afterwards separate. The first sable each party takes is called "God's sable," and is dedicated to the church.

The small parties then penetrate into the woods, and mark the trees as they advance, that they may know their way back; and when arrived in the hunting quarters, they form huts of trees and bank up the snow around them. Near these they lay their traps; then they advance farther and lay more traps; still building new huts in every quarter, and returning successively to every old one, to visit the traps, and take out the game, and skin it, which none but the chief of the party must do. The traps are a sort of pit-fall, with a loose board placed over it, baited with fish or flesh. When the sables become scarce, the hunters trace them in the new-fallen snow to their retreats, placing their nets at the entrance, and sometimes have to remain waiting two or three days on the watch for the appearance of the animal. Another way of taking the sable is by placing a piece of timber from tree to tree horizontally; near one end of this a bait is placed. Over this piece of wood another is suspended obliquely, one end slightly resting on a post, and a rod extending from it to a noose to which the bait is fastened. As soon as the sable seizes the meat, the upper timber falls and kills him.

During this time the hunters are supplied with provisions by persons who are employed to bring it on sledges from places on the route where they are obliged to form magazines. The hunters are sometimes reduced to dreadful extremities from the failure of their provisions, and sometimes they perish. The following passage from the "*Travels of Bell of Antermomy*," published in 1763, besides describing another mode of taking the sable, mentions a curious process resorted to for suppressing the cravings of appetite. "The sables are not caught in the same manner as other animals. The fur is so tender that the least mark of an arrow, or ruffling of the hair, spoils the sale of the skin. When the hunter finds the track of a sable in the snow, he follows it perhaps for two or three days, till the poor animal, quite tired, takes refuge in some small tree—for it can climb like a cat; the hunter then spreads his net around the tree, and makes a fire; the sable, unable to endure the smoke, immediately descends and is caught in the net. I have been told by some of these hunters that, when pinched with hunger in some of these long chases, they take two thin



boards, one of which they apply to the pit of the stomach, and the other to the back opposite to it; the extremities of these boards are tied with cords, which are drawn tighter by degrees, and prevent their feeling the cravings of hunger."

When the season is concluded, the hunters reassemble—report to their leader the number of sables each has taken—make complaints of offenders against their regulations—punish delinquents, and divide the spoil. They then continue at head-quarters until the rivers are clear of ice, when they return home and deliver to every church the dedicated furs.

What is commonly called the American sable is now known to be a distinct species. It is a larger animal than the true sable of Siberia; it is of a glossy, silver, black color, which is paler towards the fore-quarters, and slightly red about the nose; the tail and legs are velvet black, the hair silky and the fur very beautiful. The hunters call it the fisher, but improperly, as it by no means frequents the water, but its habits are almost entirely similar to those of the animal to which our attention is more particularly limited. As the skins of these animals are not so valuable as those of the true sable, the American hunter, as represented in our engraving, does not hesitate to shoot them.

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## THE OTTER.

**A**LL anglers, with Izaak Walton at their head, have an inveterate hostility against the otter, inasmuch as it may be regarded as their rival in the destruction of the finny race, but not a fair rival, since it is ever upon the spot, incessant in its exertions, voracious in the extreme, and works like a poacher during the night, nefariously thinning the river of the finest fish, and thereby depriving the angler of his anticipated enjoyment. The complaint that "the otter devours much fish, and kills and spoils much more than he eats," is very true; for where his prey is abundant, he only devours the fish from the head downward to the vent, leaving the tail as a witness against him.

Like the fox and wild-cat, the otter is in fact a nocturnal beast of prey, remaining quiet in its retreat till the night has set in, when it begins its depredations, and continues them till the first beams of sunrise warn it to retire. The ease and celerity of its aquatic evolutions during the chase of its victims are astonishing: rapid as the trout is in its motions, arrow-like as is its speed, the otter hunts it down, for his perseverance is equal to his celerity; he follows the fish in every turn and double, and maintains the pursuit with a pertinacity which generally insures success.

Fishes seem to have an instinctive dread of the otter, for it has been seen to collect into a shoal a vast number of trouts in the river, and drive them before it until the greater part have thrown themselves on shore.


The otter usually avails himself of any convenient excavation in the bank overhanging the water, especially if covered and concealed by the twisted

roots of a tree, or overarched by intertangled shrubs or bushes. Buffon says that the otter will even take up its abode among piles of floating wood. Sometimes, however, its retreat is at a considerable distance from its usual fishing haunt. In the month of March, or early in April, the female brings forth her young, from three to five in number, upon a bed of sticks or grass, in the excavation she has chosen for their concealment, and she attends them with great solicitude. The strength of the instinctive attachment for her young is thus noticed by Steller. "Often," says he, "I have spared the lives of the female otters, whose young ones I took away. They expressed their sorrow by crying like human beings, and followed me as I was carrying off their young, which called to them for aid in a tone of voice very much resembling the crying of children. When I sat down in the snow they came quite close to me, and attempted to carry off their young. On one occasion when I had deprived an otter of her progeny, I returned to the place eight days afterward, and found the female sitting by the river, listless and desponding, who suffered me to kill her on the spot, without making any attempt at escape. On skinning her, I found she was quite wasted away with sorrow for the loss of her young. Another time I saw at some distance from me an old otter, sleeping by the side of a young one about a year old. As soon as the mother perceived me, she awakened the young one, and enticed him to betake himself to the river; but as he did not take the hint, and seemed inclined to prolong his sleep, she took him up in her fore paws, and plunged into the water." It is during the spring and summer months, while the young of the otter are dependent upon the mother's care, that the destruction she makes among the fish is most considerable; she has not only her own wants, but those of her offspring to provide for, and her exertions during the silent hours of night are unremitting.

The sport of otter-hunting, formerly maintained by country gentlemen for the sake of the diversion, may be regarded as having been brought to a close in England, with the termination of the last century, and is now only practised for the sake of extirpating a noxious animal. At the present day, few or no packs of otter-hounds are kept.

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## SEAL HUNTING.

 RANTZ, in his "History of Greenland," has fully detailed the modes of taking this animal, in use among the Greenlanders.

The seal is of far more importance to the Greenlanders than the sheep is to us, or the cocoanut tree to the Indian. Therefore, among the Greenlanders, a man who cannot catch seals is held in very light esteem. It is the ultimate end kept in view in all the training of children. It is the only art to which they are trained from infancy, and it is by the exercise of it that men maintain themselves, make themselves agreeable to others, and become useful members of the community.

The Greenlanders have three ways of taking seals: either singly with the bladder, or in company by the *clapper hunt*, or in the winter on the ice; to which peculiar methods that of shooting may now be added.





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OTTER HUNTING.





When the Greenlander, properly equipped for hunting, observes the harp seal, he endeavors to surprise it unawares, and approaches with the wind and sun in his back, that he may not be seen or heard by it. When he comes within four, five, or six fathoms of the animal, all his implements being in previous readiness, he transfers the oar to his left hand, and taking the harpoon (to which an inflated bladder is attached by a long string) in his right, launches it with all his force against the seal. The moment the animal is pierced, the man throws the bladder, tied to the end of the string, into the water, on the same side that the seal runs and dives, which it instantly does like a dart. The seal often drags the bladder under water; but from its size, it is so great an impediment that the animal soon tires, and must come up again in about a quarter of an hour, to take breath. The man hastens to the spot where he sees the bladder ascend, and as soon as the seal appears, throws an unbarbed lance against it. This lance always comes out of the wound it has inflicted, and the man continues to employ it until the seal is quite exhausted, when he runs a smaller lance into it, and kills it outright; but he immediately after closes the wound in order to preserve the blood.

Of the several species of seal found in Greenland, only one, the harp seal, called by the natives *attarsoak*, which is the most stupid and careless, can be caught in this manner. Some other species, more careful or timid, are taken by several men in company, in what Crantz calls the "clapper hunt." In this process the men cut off their retreat, and frighten them under water by clapping, shouting, and throwing stones; but as the seals must come to the surface at frequent intervals to draw breath, the men again persecute them, until at last the animals are obliged to remain so long under water, that when they do come up they stay so long at the surface as to afford the men an easy opportunity of effecting their destruction.

The third method of killing seals (upon the ice) is mostly practised in Disko, where the bays are frozen over in the winter. Several methods of proceeding are adopted. The seals themselves sometimes make holes in the ice, at which they come to breathe. Near such a hole the Greenlander seats himself upon a stool, resting his feet on one that is lower, to keep them from the cold: he thus sits watching; and when the animal comes and puts its nose to the hole, he pierces it instantly with his harpoon; and then, breaking the hole larger, he draws it out and kills it quite. Another method is, for a man to lie along upon his belly on a kind of sledge, near other holes from which the seals come out occasionally upon the ice to bask themselves in the sun. Near this great opening another small one is made, at which another man is stationed, who holds, inserted through it, a harpoon with an unusually long shaft or pole. The man who lies upon the ice looks into the large hole until he perceives a seal under the harpoon; he then makes a signal to the other man, who instantly thrusts down the weapon with all his strength, to run the animal through.

If a Greenlander happens to see a seal near its hole upon the ice, he slides along upon his belly towards it, wagging his head and imitating the grunting of a seal, so that the poor animal, concluding it to be one of its own harmless companions, allows the man to come near enough to pierce it with his long dart.

When the current wears a large opening in the ice in spring, the Green-

THE SEAL.



JOHN N. SMITH.



landers station themselves all around it, waiting till the seals come in large droves thither to take breath, when they kill them with their harpoons. Many also are killed on the ice while they lie sleeping and snoring in the sun.

An interesting account of the habits of the seal, as observed in the Orkney and Shetland Islands, is given in the 'Fauna Orcadensis' of the Rev. George Low, minister of Birsá and Haray, from which we extract the following particulars:

Seals are very numerous in these parts, especially in the desert isles or sea rocks that are separated from the land: there they lie in droves when the sea is low, and in season bring forth their young.

The seal swims with great rapidity, and, before a gale of wind, is full of frolic, jumping and tumbling about, sometimes throwing itself entirely out of the water, and performing many awkward gambols, at last retiring to its wonted rock or cavern, and there remaining till the storm is over. Seals seem to have much curiosity. If people are passing in boats they often come up very close, stare at them, and follow them a considerable time. If the people are speaking loud, they seem to pay much attention, and to exhibit some surprise. The church of Hoy, in Orkney, is situated near a small sandy bay, which is much frequented by these animals; and Mr. Low used to observe that when the bell rung for divine service, all the seals within hearing would swim directly for the shore, and would remain while the bells continued ringing, looking about with much appearance of wonder, but without alarm.

Numbers of seals are yearly caught upon the northern coasts, both with nets and shot, for the sake chiefly of the skins and oil. Mr. Low was credibly informed that in North Ronaldsha they were taken also for eating, and that very good hams were made from them. He had seen large numbers of seals cut up, and had no doubt that the young ones might eat tolerably well; but the flesh of the old ones is coarse grained and black, and must be very indifferent food. We are not so much surprised as Mr. Low, that the people of Ronaldsha should eat seals. He was probably aware, from Pennant, that seals formerly found a place at the tables of the great even in England, as appears from the bill of fare of the famous feast given by Archbishop Neville in the reign of Edward IV., which states that several were provided on that occasion.

Mr. Low also informs us that in his time (he died in 1795) a ship went annually from Pomona (as we understand him) to Soliskerry, and seldom returned without 200 or 300 seals. She was manned with between thirty and forty men, who, as soon as they came up with the rock, landed—except a few who remained on board to receive what the others killed—and immediately surrounded the seals which were then on it. One party, armed with clubs, commenced knocking them on the head, and another employed itself in *jacking*; that is, cutting off the skin with the blubber on it, while another party put the produce on board. They continued this as long as any seals remained; and when their task was accomplished, they hastened on board and set sail, as they were in danger from the weather while they remained, as, if it blew up, it was impossible for them to get to their boats. When they returned home, the "jacks" were divided, and sold by public auction, producing five or six shillings each; and each man generally got about thirty shillings for his share, after allowing a third for the vessel, and

something more than a common share for the master. When the "jacks" were sold, the blubber was cut from the skin and boiled down into oil, which sold well. The skins were fastened to the walls of the houses till dry, and were then sold to the trunk makers and others for eight pence or a shilling apiece, small and great. Mr. Low adds that the local tanners dressed the seal skin both for shoes and breeches, but they did not answer very well for the former, being soft and spongy, but, when properly managed, they did well for breeches. They were also dressed, with the hair on, for saddle covers; and very beautiful skins are sometimes made into waistcoats.

We recur to Pennant for further information concerning the treatment of seals in Scotland. He informs us that on the coast of Caithness there are immense caverns opening into the sea, and running some hundred yards beneath the land. These are the resort of seals in the breeding time, where they continue till their young are old enough to go to sea, which is in about six or seven weeks. The first of these caves is near the Ord, the last near Thrumster; their entrance is so narrow as only to admit a boat, but within they are very spacious and lofty. In the month of October, or beginning of November, the seal hunters enter the mouth of the caverns about midnight, and rowing up as far as they can, they land. Each man is provided with a bludgeon, and when properly stationed, they light their torches and make a great noise, which brings down the seals from the further end of the cavern in a confused body, with fearful cries and shrieks. At first the men are obliged to give way, for fear of being overborne; but when the throng has passed, they kill those that straggle behind, which are chiefly the young, by striking them on the nose, where a very slight blow destroys them, though they are otherwise exceedingly tenacious of life. When the work is over, the seals are dragged to the boat, which two men had been left to guard. This process is attended with great hazard, for should the torches go out, or the wind blow from the sea while the men remain in the cave, their lives are lost.

Those who pursue the seal rather for sport than profit, adopt another method, of which the following description has been furnished:

"One fine October morning I accompanied a military friend in quest of the seals. We embarked in a boat from Mull. The major's body servant carried two double barreled rifles, and had brought an oblong wooden box, fitted with a square piece of glass at one end, to be employed in searching below the surface of the water for any dead seals that might be lost. The boat was manned by four stout highlanders, who rowed us among certain small rocky islands, with which the sea in that part is studded; numerous goats and sheep pick up a living on these barren rocks, the verdure being particularly scanty, though the short grass, I was told, is very nourishing. In a nook of one of these islands we put the boat, and leaving the crew with an injunction to remain perfectly still, ascended the craggy side of the land; behind a fragment of rock the keen sportsman crouched with rifle cocked, his eye ranging over the expanse, his whole figure and expression of countenance denoting eagerness, mingled with caution. There was a long silence of expectation, and the whole scene, as I lay watching the surface of the water, struck me as one of the wildest and most interesting that I ever witnessed. The sea was calm as a lake, the sun shining full upon it; lofty ridges of heather-covered hills now glowing with warm light,



and then subdued by passing shadows, formed a romantic background. The shores were lined by steep cliffs and reefs of jagged rocks jutting out far into the sea, and the islands before mentioned, on one of which I was seated, varied the scene still more with color and picturesque forms. The seal in such a calm scene ventures from the ocean depths to inhale the air, and seeing no object to alarm, sports above the wave, or swims to and fro like a dog, occasionally landing on pieces of rock, and basking at his ease. Several of these singular animals soon showed their heads above the water, the sportsman waiting until they approached within shot. It is very difficult to hit them in this way, but I have seen experienced marksmen kill them from the boat at the extreme limit of a rifle's power. At one hundred yards they are frequently killed."

## FISHERIES.

THE surface of nearly three-fourths of the globe is covered with water, and this vast space is peopled as thickly with animated beings as the land; but the difficulties which arise when an investigation into their nature and habits is attempted, renders this field of observation comparatively unknown. Concerning even some which are most familiar to us our knowledge is limited, and the difficulty of accumulating facts renders the progress of information slow. Still, the perseverance and industry of some active minds have done much to render the study of ichthyology full of interest. Many difficulties and obscurities have been removed, and sufficient is known to excite a desire to know more.

It may be convenient in this place to give the most approved arrangement of fishes. They are placed by Cuvier in the fourth class of organized beings, after beasts, birds and reptiles. This class is divided into two subclasses—viz., cartilaginous fishes and osseous fishes. In the former the bones are gristly, and in the latter firm, though less so than those of land animals, the matter of which they are composed being differently proportioned.

The cartilaginous fishes are divided into three orders:—1. Cyclostomi, having the jaws fixed and the gills adhering, with numerous openings—*e. g.*, the lamprey. 2. Selachii, having teeth instead of jaws, and the gills toothed like a comb—the ray. 3. Sturiones, having the gills free—the sturgeon.

The osseous fishes are divided into six orders;—1. the Plectognathi have fibrous bones and fixed jaws—*e. g.*, the sun fish. 2. the Lopobranchii have gills in the form of small round tufts—the hippocampus. 3. The Malacopterygii Abdominales have the rays of the fins generally soft, and the ventral fins placed far behind—the salmon. 4. The Malacopterygii Subbrachiati have gills resembling the tooth of a comb, and the ventral fins are placed either before the pectoral fins, between them or a little behind them—the whiting. 5. The Malacopterygii Apodes are footless, or without ventral fins—the eel. 6. In the Acanthopterygii the first rays

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of the fins are supported by a spinous process, and pointed like a thorn — the sword-fish.

The fins exercise considerable influence on the habits of fishes, and are the substitutes for limbs. The pectoral or breast-fin assists in supporting the upper part of the body, and gives a direction to its motion; the dorsal or back-fin steadies it; the ventral or belly-fin acts as an oar, and impels it along; the vent or hind-fin, with the pectoral fin, keeps the fish in a horizontal position; and the tail or caudal-fin is the great organ of progressive motion, acting like a scull. It has been found that if the pectoral and vent-fins are cut off, fishes lose the power of controlling the direction of their movements.

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## SWORD-FISH.

**T**HE prolonged bony snout of the sword-fish, bearing some resemblance to a sword in its form and employment, has in all nations procured for the fish a name expressive of this analogy. The generic character common to the species is, that the head with the upper jaw terminates in a sword-shaped snout, that the mouth is without teeth, that the gill-membrane has eight rays, and that the body is roundish and without scales. The two principal species are the common sword-fish, and the broad-finned sword-fish. The common sword-fish is considered as properly a native of the Mediterranean, though it sometimes strays into the Atlantic, and has been found along the coast of Europe as far as the Baltic, and along that of Africa as far as the Cape of Good Hope. It has a long and round body, and gradually tapering towards the tail. The head is rather flat, and the mouth wide, both jaws ending in a point, but the upper extending to a much greater length than the lower. This prolonged part is what is usually called the sword: it is of a bony substance between three and four inches wide at the base, according to the proportions of the individual to which it belongs, and tapering to a sharp point. It is covered by a strong epidermis or scarf-skin, rough to the touch like sand paper. A deeply impressed line or furrow runs down the middle of the upper part, and three similar furrows on the lower surface. It has only one fin on the back, which runs along the whole length of it. It is very high at the commencement, and sinking suddenly, becomes very shallow, and is continued to within a short distance of the tail, terminating in an elevated point. The vent-fin, which is placed nearly opposite this part beneath, is moderately small, and much wider at each extremity than in the middle. The gill-fins are rather small, and of a lanceolate shape. The tail is large and crescent-shaped, and on each side of the body, immediately before it, is a strong finny appendage. The general color of the fish is brown, accompanied by a deep steel-blue cast on the head and upper parts, and inclining to silvery white on the sides and abdomen. It sometimes grows to a very large size, and as much as twenty feet in length. Pennant mentions one cast on

THE SWORD-FISH.





shore near Laugharne, Caermarthenshire, the head of which alone weighed seventy-five pounds, and was furnished with a snout three feet long.

The sword-fish is very active in its movements and voracious in its appetite. It feeds on the smaller kinds of fish, which it kills by piercing them with its sword. It is said to be in particular a very great enemy to the tunny, which is described by Belon to be as much alarmed by its appearance as a sheep is at the sight of a wolf.

This fish is highly esteemed as an article of food by the Sicilians, who buy it up eagerly at any price at the commencement of the season, which lasts from May to August. They cut it into pieces, and salt it for future use. This process was in ancient times particularly performed at the town of Thuri in the bay of Tarentum, whence the fish was called *tomus thurianus*. A description of the ancient manner of taking this fish has been left us by Strabo, from which it appears that the process was the same as that now in use. A man mounts upon a cliff that overhangs the sea; and as soon as he discovers the fish, gives notice to a boat in attendance of the course it has taken. A man in the boat then mounts the mast, and on seeing the sword-fish directs the rowers towards it. As soon as they think themselves within reach, the man on the mast descends, and taking in his hand a harpoon, to which a cord is attached, strikes it into the fish, sometimes at a considerable distance. After being wearied with its agitations and attempts to escape, as well as exhausted by its wound, the fish is seized and drawn into the boat. The superstitious Sicilian fishermen have an unintelligible chant, which they regard as a most essential part of their apparatus. Brydone thinks it is Greek: but be that as it may, the fishermen are convinced of its efficacy as a charm, its operation being to attract and detain the fish near the boat. There are certainly some Italian words in it, although it is said that the men believe that the fish would dive into the water and be seen no more if it happened to hear a word of Italian.

The broad-finned sword-fish is of a thinner and more elegant form than the preceding, and is also distinguished by an extremely broad back fin, and by very long sharp-pointed thoracic appendages, which are entirely wanting in the other. The general color of the fish is of a silvery-bluish white, except in the back, head, tail, and fins, which in the living animal are of a deep blue, fading into brown in the dried specimens. This fish is found in the Brazilian and East Indian seas, and also in the Northern seas, where and elsewhere it is a great enemy to whales, piercing them with its formidable weapon. A specimen of this fish occupies a very conspicuous situation in the British Museum in a distinct case, which also contains three specimens of detached swords. In the same room there is a specimen of the common sword-fish.

The captain of an East Indiaman sent to Sir Joseph Banks an account of an astonishing but not singular instance of the strength of an individual of this broad-finned species; the bottom of his ship was pierced through by its sword in such a manner that it was completely imbedded, or driven through almost to its base—the animal having been killed by the violence of the shock. It is a fortunate circumstance that the fish is generally either killed in this manner or else perishes from being unable to withdraw its weapon, for could it effect this object, the vessel must inevitably founder in consequence of the leak; and, indeed, instances are recorded in which

some vessels, probably old or of slight description, have been greatly endangered, or even lost, in consequence of having been struck by a sword-fish. In the present instance, the wood, with the sword imbedded in it, was sawed out, and is now in the British Museum, where it forms one of the detached swords just mentioned.

Pliny mentions the power of the sword-fish to transfix vessels; and this was for a long time regarded as one of the exaggerated statements which are so common in the works of the ancient naturalists. Dr. Shaw thinks that Pliny, not being acquainted with the distinction of species, must have attributed to the common sword-fish what is true only of this species; but Dr. Shaw must have been in error, as the operation seems to be as often performed by the common fish as by that with the broad fin—a fact which does not appear to have been ascertained when he wrote. Dr. Jerome V. C. Smith, in his *Natural History of the Fishes of Massachusetts*, 1833, describes the common sword-fish as frequent off that coast, contrary to the ordinary opinion, which restricts it to the Mediterranean, and to the Atlantic coasts of Africa and Europe. That he means the common and not the broad-finned species is however evident, as he gives a figure and a detailed description. He then proceeds to relate instances of transfixion performed by this fish such as Dr. Shaw would restrict to the broad-finned species. Dr. Smith seems to have seen specimens of the fish which he describes, but he mentions that his practical information is derived from Mr. Dagget, an aged person, who has pursued the business of a pilot for half a century. Upon the whole, it seems evident that his information, the substance of which we proceed to give, applies to the common sword-fish, although it is to be regretted that he could not acquire distinct information concerning the smaller sword-fish of which he had heard mariners speak, and which he at first supposed might be the *makaira*, but which in the end he concluded must be the young of the common fish. There is no doubt, however, that, although, on the authority of Dr. Smith and *his* authorities, we are bound to consider the ensuing facts as applying to the common species, the whole is equally true of the broad-finned one. There is in fact little, if any, known difference in their habits.

Our author observes, that the fish “is evidently possessed of a highly irritable disposition, and therefore appears to be constantly involved in perilous and fearful difficulties. It is voracious, and yet without teeth; and though it seems to be the knight-errant of the deep, by meddling with the affairs of others, in which it has no personal interest, it also appears, at other times, to be at open war with whatever moves in the liquid element. Whales of prodigious magnitude, though truly peaceably disposed, if by chance they get within the sphere of its vision, are butchered without mercy. Whenever the sword-fish fails of accomplishing the death of this great animal, it is oftener because the sword is not long enough to penetrate through the thick sheet of blubber to the vitals than from any want of exertion on the part of the warlike assailant.”

Notwithstanding this view of its character, it seems to us that the sword-fish aims its formidable thrusts at vessels, not so much from a disposition to attack everything that falls in its way, as under the impression that the said vessels are whales, or other great fish; and may not the fact, that vessels are rarely if ever so attacked in the Mediterranean, be in a great degree owing to this—that there are not in that sea any fish so large that



a sword-fish of ordinary penetration could mistake a ship for them. We are liable to great misapprehension in estimating the character of an animal without a careful reference to local circumstances.

Dr. Smith mentions the sword imbedded in wood at the British Museum, and gives some additional instances, which we quote :—

“ On a calm sunny day during the last summer, as a pilot was leisurely rowing his little skiff over the glossy bosom of the gently swelling waves, he was suddenly roused from his seat by the plunge of a sword fish, thrusting his long spear more than three feet up through the bottom of his slender bark, when the pilot, with that presence of mind for which the whole fraternity are distinguished, broke it off on a level with the floor, by the butt of an oar, before the submarine assassin had time to withdraw his fearfully offensive weapon.

“ Within five or six years, a Boston ship, on a return from a long voyage, being overhauled for repairs, presented the stump of a sword-fish's blade, the point of which was driven a considerable way into the hard oak. In repairing his Britannic Majesty's ship *Leopard*, in 1725, on her return from the coast of Guinea, a sword of this fish was found to have gone through the sheathing one inch, next through a three-inch plank, and beyond that four inches and a half into the firm timber. It was the opinion of mechanics that it would require nine strokes of a hammer, weighing twenty five pounds, to drive an iron bolt of similar size and form to the same depth in the same hull ; yet this was accomplished by a single thrust.”

That the vessel came from the coast of Guinea is certainly one circumstance in favor of the claim of the common fish to the credit of this feat.

“ The Hon. Josiah Robbins,” proceeds Dr. Smith, “ of Plymouth, Mass., related to us the following extraordinary fact. On the return of the ship *Fortune*, of Plymouth, from a whaling voyage in the Pacific, some time in the year 1826 or 1827, he does not recollect which, the stump of a sword-blade was discovered on the outside of the hull, which, on examination, was found to have penetrated through the copper sheathing, an inch board sheathing, a three inch plank of hard wood, the solid white oak timber of the ship, twelve inches thick, through another two and a half inch hard oak ceiling plank, and lastly perforated the head of an oil cask, where it still remained immovably fixed, so that not a single drop of oil had escaped.”

Dr. Smith says that the American ship carpenters do not view the circumstance of finding points and portions of the swords in the hulls of vessels as a rare occurrence, particularly in those that come from South America. “ We have,” he continues, “ many specimens of the swords from various parts of the world, but only two possess the skeleton of the head, which renders them quite valuable to a cabinet. Seamen who bring them from foreign countries as curiosities, are very apt to ruin them in two ways ; first, by sawing them off too far from the jaw, and secondly, by scraping the blades smooth with knives and glass by way of improving upon nature ; hence a majority of the specimens in museums are nearly ruined.”

## THE WHALE, AND WHALE-CATCHING.

**I**N giving a description of the whale, we must necessarily repeat much that has been written by others; but one who has seen them, in their native element, and has often met them in all their terrors, can at least strip his description of the exaggeration in which most writers have indulged.

The whale may be properly divided into two genera: the bone whale and the sperm whale. I prefer this description to the scientific one usually given, as it will more definitely mark the difference of these animals than classic words, to which we attach little meaning. The bone whales are of several species, all agreeing in general habits and character, but each having some distinct characteristic. The first and most important is the black whale, or, as the Americans call him, the *right* whale. This animal is usually about fifty-six feet in length, the largest may reach to sixty feet. Their color is black on the back, and white on the centre of the belly. Occasionally he is spotted with white. The head of this creature is about one third of his whole length. The eyes are placed on the sides of the head, near the body, and from its great size, it is consequently unable to see either directly forward or behind it, so that it may be approached very near, without being alarmed. But the most singular part of the animal is its mouth, and its adaptation for collecting the food upon which it lives. The upper jaw opens at least fifteen feet in length, and is provided with over five hundred laminæ, or slabs of thin black bone, which are hairy on the inner side, and when seen without, have the appearance of a Venetian blind, placed perpendicularly. The under jaw is broad, and when closed receives the ends of this bone upon its soft gums. It is also provided with two immense lips, one on each side, which are large enough to close the whole mouth and cover the bone. Some idea of these lips may be formed, when we know that the longest bone is fourteen feet in length, and the largest lip will make three barrels of oil. The body is from forty to fifty feet in circumference, and has two fins just behind the head, in which whalers, owing to the peculiar situation of the bones, trace a fanciful resemblance to the human hand and fingers. The use of the fins appears to be to direct their course, and not to assist them in swimming. The body is thick for the greater part of its length, but it tapers near the end, and finishes in the tail, or as it is usually called, in flukes. These flukes are from twelve to fifteen feet in breadth, and in them is placed the animal's means of offence and defence. With its flukes it strikes blows which may be heard at the distance of miles, and from their force, one would suppose that nothing could sustain them, but we find that, in their contests with each other, they seldom or never produce death.

This whale feeds upon the animalculæ of the ocean, more particularly upon a very minute species of the shrimp, by the whalers called *britt*, which is found without the tropics, both in the northern and southern oceans.



This is obtained by swimming with its mouth partly opened, until a sufficient quantity is collected and retained by the hairy bone of the upper jaw, when the lips are closed, and by means of its tongue this small food is collected and swallowed. Its manner of feeding would remind you of the grazing of the ox—the same disproportion between the size of its food and the animal to be supported. But when we reflect upon the fact that the ocean is teeming with life, and remember the immense net-like mouth of the whale, we shall at once see that the end is not disproportioned to the means. Like the ox too, this animal feeds industriously for a few hours, and then either rises above the surface and sleeps, or exercises itself in awkward gambols. If playful it beats the water with its flukes, or sinks to the depths of the ocean, and ascends with such velocity that it throws its whole body out of the water. It can not remain long under the water at one time, but must ascend for respiration. Its usual time of breathing is once in fifteen minutes. It has two orifices on the top of the head which answer for nostrils, and when it throws out its breath it is detected by the spray or steam which it throws up; owing to this, it becomes the prey of the whalemen. This animal is sought for its oil and bone.

The other species of bone whale are the humpbacked whale, the finback, and a species called the sulphur-bottom. The humpback is killed for his oil, but his bone is small and of no value; he differs from the black whale in having a large hump on the back, and in his fins which are at least fifteen feet in length, with which he strikes severe blows, and will readily destroy a boat. The finback whale is ninety feet in length, being much longer than either of the others; is distinguished from them by throwing his spout much higher, and by having a fin on the top of his back, and never lifting his flukes out of the water. He is also much fleetier than the black or humpbacked whales. For while they usually move but three or four miles an hour, and when excited can only for a short time accelerate their motion to ten or twelve miles, and must then stop and rest, the finback can readily move at the rate of twenty miles an hour (at the least,) and will continue that rate for a length of time, that render all attempts to take him unavailing. The last and largest of the whale species, is the sulphur-bottom or razor-back whale. They have been met with at the estimated length of one hundred and thirty feet, they differ little in appearance from the finback, except that the back fin is nearer the tail, and their motion is much slower, seldom exceeding five miles an hour. They feed in the same manner as the black whale, and like them are killed for their oil. All the species of bone whale are alike in their habits, being all timid and cowardly, trusting to flight when attacked, and never, if they can avoid it, defending themselves by injuring others.

The bone whales have but one known enemy except man. This is a fish called by whalers "the killer," about twenty feet long, rather large in the body, and armed with strong teeth, which attacks the bone whale for the sake of his tongue. He first fastens upon the blow-holes or nostrils of the whale until he is forced to open his mouth to breathe, which then entering, he fastens upon the tongue and devours it, thus killing this immense animal, which would appear from its bulk to be safe from the attack of all minor creatures.

The sperm whale differs from the bone whale in its feeding. The food of the sperm whale is a species of animated vegetable, called squid, usually

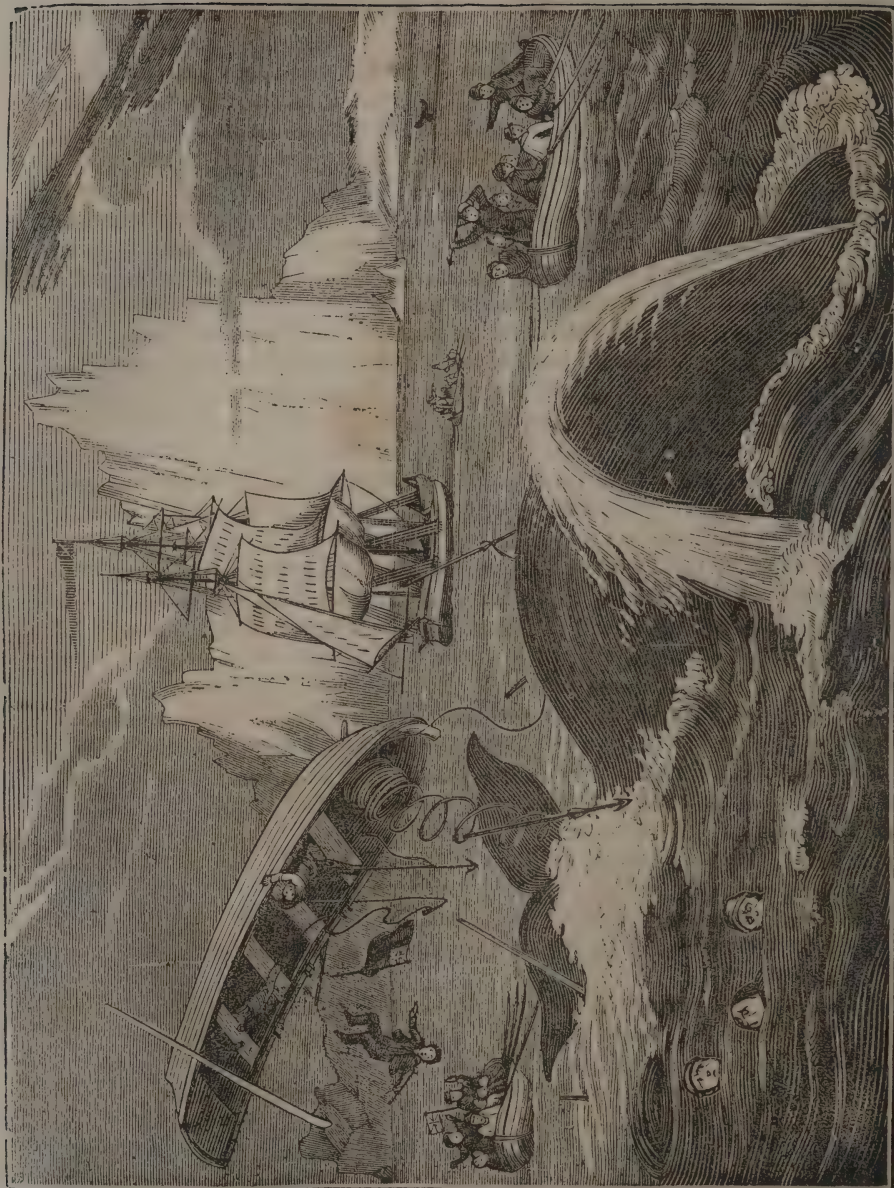
found in deep water. As this substance has much consistency, the whale is provided with thirty-six large teeth on the under jaw, with which it rends its food from the rocks to which it is attached. The head of the sperm whale is square at the end, and seems unfit for rapid motion, but it is so hard that it is unaffected by collision with hard substances, and one means of offence with this animal is to strike with the head. Its head is not only one third the length of the body, but contains one third of the oily matter of the whole creature; its upper jaw is frequently fourteen feet in thickness. Its upper surface of about six or eight feet in thickness (in a very large whale) is called junk, being formed of hard muscular fibres filled up with very fat oily matter. Beneath this is a cavity called the case, in which is contained a semi-liquid matter, which is spermaceti mixed with a little oil. This whale is not so timid as the bone whale, and has more means of offence. It can attack with its square head, its jaw, or its flukes, and either of them are usually fatal to its opponent. It is the monarch of the ocean, and perhaps the leviathan of Job. It is not usually dangerous or malicious, but when aroused and aware of its enemy, its ferocity is terrible; it is not satisfied with beating him off, but pursues him to his destruction. He pursues the boat of the whalers until he has dashed it in pieces; but they who man it are too contemptible an enemy for this terror of the deep: when the apparent enemy is destroyed, the men are left to their fate, and are safely picked up by another boat.

The sperm, like the bone whale, breathes air, but is capable of remaining longer under water. It is usually supposed that the sperm whale remains as long under the water as he does on the surface; and the largest have been known to be one hour and a quarter on the surface, breathing, and the same time below. This whale has but one nostril or spout-hole, and in breathing blows the spray forward and low. He moves slowly through the water when not excited, but when attacked is capable of moving seven or eight miles an hour, and continuing at that rate for a great length of time. The male of the sperm whale is much larger than the female; the largest male whales having produced from one hundred and fifty to two hundred barrels of oil, while the largest female never yields more than forty barrels. Of the same genus as the sperm whale are the porpoise and black fish. Their habits are similar, and their oil of the same kind. All whales produce their young alive, one every year, and the young are suckled like the calf until they are capable of providing for their own sustenance.

Having given a short account of the habits of whales, and the character of the different species, I shall now describe the manner of taking them and saving the oil.

A whale-ship is usually fitted with three or four boats, according to her size. Each boat is manned with six people—one mate, one harpooner, or boat-steerer, and four sailors. Besides the boats' crews she has six or eight men to keep the ship when the boats are in pursuit of whales; having in all from twenty-five to thirty-three men on board. Each boat is provided with a tub containing thirteen hundred and fifty feet of tow-line, which, when used, is made fast to two harpoons. She also has several lances, which are sharp weapons five feet in length and made fast to a pole, and used to dispatch the whale after the boat is made fast to him by the barb-harpoon. There are also several minor articles attached to the boat, which conduce to the safety of the men in case of accident. The ship is also





WHALE FISHERY.

provided with two or three large iron pots, capable of containing from one hundred and sixty to two hundred and twenty gallons each, for the purpose of boiling out the oil. Thus provided the ship takes her departure in search of the monsters of the deep. At this time commences the toil and excitement of the whalemén, which I shall now attempt to describe, using the language of the whalemén where it is intelligible to landsmen.

The ship goes on her course with an officer at her mainmast head, and a sailor at her fore. All is industry on deck. When the look-out aloft cries, "There she blows," instantly he is answered from the officer of the deck, with the shrill cry, "Where away?" He answers, giving the direction in which the fish is from the ship. Now, all is bustle, but all is order. The captain with his telescope, ascends the mast, and observes the spout, and directs the ship to steer for the expected prey. The mates and boat-steerers prepare their weapons for the conflict. The men are all on the look-out to catch the first view of the whale from the deck. The old and seasoned whalémán looks forward to the strife with hope and excitement, and perhaps amuses himself by frightening the landsmen with the dangers they are about to encounter. At last comes the order, "Haul aback the mainyard, lower away the boats." In breathless haste the orders are obeyed, the boats are gone, the ship lies like a log on the waters, and all is silence and expectation. The boats speed toward their object, the old sailors recklessly indifferent to the danger, and highly excited with the hope of gain, and the pride of contest, the landsmen doubting, but usually firm, and too proud to yield when others will lead.

Unaware of his danger, the leviathan of the deep lies idly on the water. His foe is upon him. All is silence and exertion; now comes the stern order to the harpooner, "Stand up—dart," and the barbed iron is buried deep in his vitals. Then is heard the shout, "Stern all," (to escape the danger of the agonized exertions of the wounded monster), and the reckless exultation of the daring whalemén; then writhing with pain, he lashes the waters with his tail, and in the words of the Hebrew poet, "he maketh the sea to boil like a pot; one would think the deep to be hoary." But this soon passes away, his strength is exhausted, and he lies trembling on the waters, or he seeks safety in flight. Now the boat by its tow-line is brought near to him, and the mate, with his lance, strikes him to the heart; he throws blood from his nostrils; his breathing is choked; in his agony he lashes the water; the ocean resounds with his bellowing; his strength can endure no more; he rolls a lifeless mass on the waters, the prize and scorn of his puny enemy. Yet in all this there is but little danger to the bold and experienced whalémán. He watches the motions of his timid foe, he avoids the agonized blows of his tail, and suffers him to exhaust his great strength in futile exertions.

When the whale is dead commences the labor of saving the oil. The animal is brought along side of the ship, and secured by a chain around the small part of the body where it joins the flukes. Large tackles, (or pulley-blocks with ropes rove through them), are made fast at the mainmast head, one end of the fall or rope is passed around the windlass forward; and to the lower block is attached a large hook. A hole is now cut in the blubber or outer coat of the whale, and the hook is placed in it; the men at the windlass then heave up the hook, a strip of about four feet in width of the blubber is cut by the officers of the ship, and the fat or

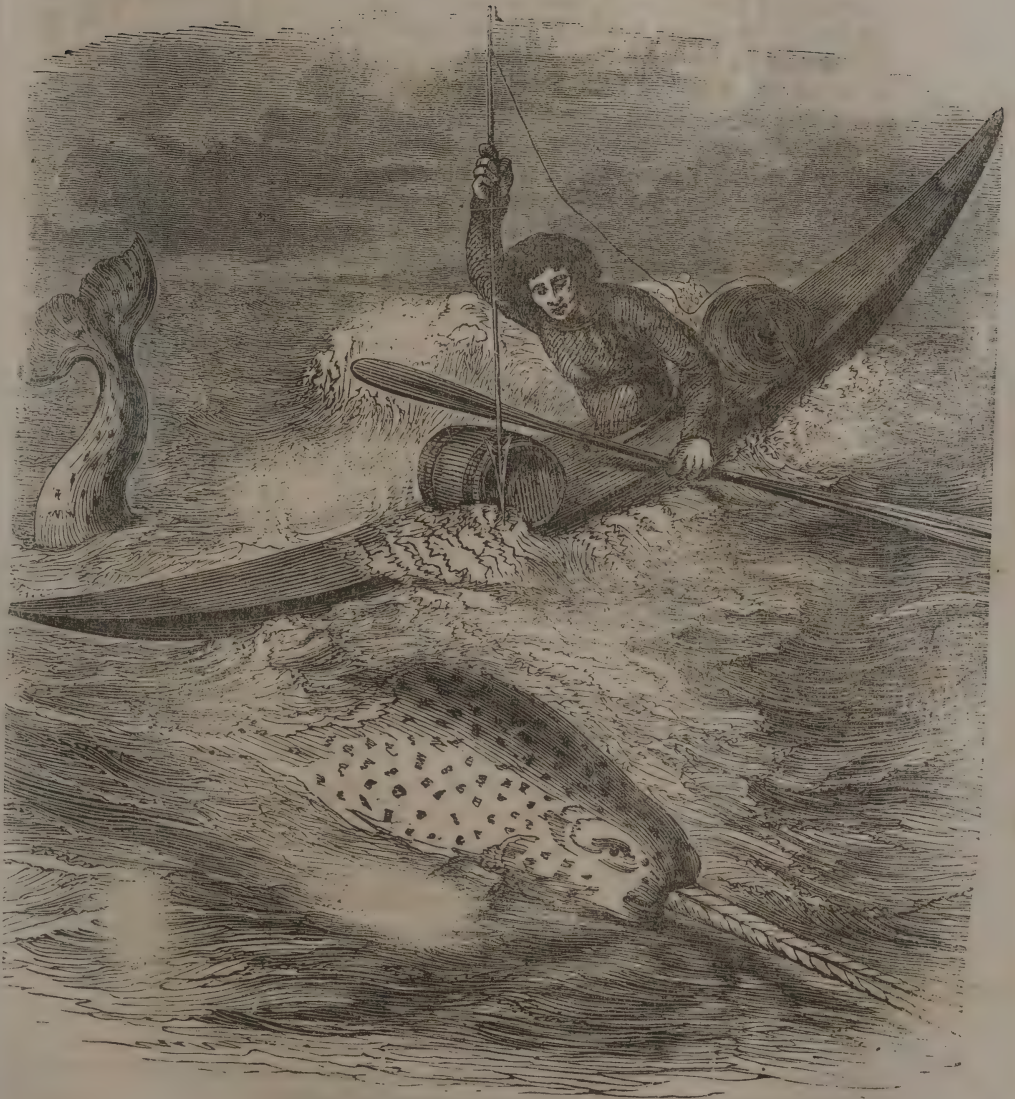


blubber is peeled off as the bark is peeled from a tree. When a piece extending from the animal to the head of the mainmast is hove up, a new hole is cut, and another tackle is made fast below, and the part above is cut off and lowered into the hold. The other tackle is hove up with another piece, rolling the whale over and over, until the whole of the blubber is taken into the ship. When everything valuable is secured, preparation is made to boil out the oil. Two men commence cutting the blubber into small oblong pieces. It is then passed to two others, who with large knives mince it thin, when it is placed in the large pots and heated until the oil flows from it, and all the water is expelled. The oil is then bailed into a large copper vessel from which it runs through a strainer into a large pot, and is thence put into casks and rolled away to cool. The scraps or solid matter of the blubber are used for fuel, so that every part is useful; and if it were not for the scraps, no ship could carry wood enough to boil out its oil. When the oil is cooled it is sent below into casks in the hold, by means of leather hose, and is there done with until the ship arrives at home. The description of a whale ship boiling at night, may amuse, and would convey no bad idea of the fancied infernal regions of former days. If the observer were placed near enough to see the general movements, and yet not so contiguous as to let dull reality dispel the illusion of appearance, and could fancy the heaving ocean glaring in the fitful light to be liquid sulphur, he would have the material hell of our precise ancestors before him. The men feeding their huge fires, and now stirring them into fierce action, the bright blaze flaring wide over the ocean, and throwing in bold relief, visages blackened by smoke, unshorn and shaggy, their bright steel forks and pikes now flashing in the light, and now indistinct as the flickering blaze fades away, and again seen as the master-demon throws boiling oil into the blaze, (to give light to his operations), the hasty movements of the men passing suddenly before the fires, and then lost in darkness, or their forms thrown at length before the blaze, in the moments of relaxation—a morbid fancy might easily make it an image of terror, or a lighter mood might laugh at the ridiculous pageant as it passed before him.

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## THE NARWAL.

**A**MONG the cetacea that inhabit the Polar ocean, the narwal, if not the largest, is nevertheless one of the most remarkable. Its general form resembles that of the porpoise; it has, however, no teeth, properly so called, but two tusks, or spears, implanted in the intermaxillary bone, but of which the right remains usually rudimentary and concealed during life. The left tusk, on the contrary, attains to from five to seven or eight, and sometimes ten feet in length, and projects from the snout in a right line with the body, tapering gradually to a point, with a spiral twist (rope-like) throughout its whole extent. In structure and growth, this tusk resembles that of the elephant, being hollow at its base, or root, and solid at its extremity.



THE NARWALL.



The tusk or spear of the narwal constitutes a powerful weapon, which it is reported to use with terrible effect. It is, however, its only weapon, for it has neither the formidable teeth of the grampus nor of the cachalot. Crantz thus describes the narwal: "This species is commonly twenty feet long, and has a smooth black skin, sharp head, and little mouth. A round double-twisted horn runs straight out from the left side of the upper lip. It is commonly ten feet long, as thick as one's arm, hollow inside, and composed of a white solid substance. It is probable he uses this horn to get at the sea grass, which is his proper food, and also to bore a hole in the ice with it, when he wants fresh air; possibly also as a weapon against his enemies. Another little horn, a span long, lies concealed in the right side of his nose, which probably is reserved for a fresh supply, if some accident should deprive him of the long one; and they say that as a ship was once sailing at sea, it felt a violent shock, as if it had struck upon a rock, and afterward one of these horns was found fastened in it. Formerly these horns, or tusks, were looked upon to be the horns of the fabulous land unicorn, and therefore they were valued as an inestimable curiosity, and sold excessively dear, till the Greenland fishery was set on foot, when they found them in the northern parts of Davis' straits in greater plenty than anywhere; yet for some time they carried on the cheat."

Captain Scoresby found the remains of cuttle fish in the stomachs of several which were opened by him, and similar remains were also found in the stomach of one driven ashore near Boston, Lincolnshire, England.

In general form, the narwal resembles the porpoise, or grampus, but the head is small and blunt; the mouth is small, and not capable of much extension. The under lip is wedge shaped. The eyes are placed in a line with the opening of the mouth, at the distance of thirteen or fourteen inches from the snout, and of small size, being about an inch in diameter. The spiracle, or blow hole, is a single orifice of a semicircular form, on the top of the head directly over the eyes. The fins, or flippers, are about fourteen or fifteen inches long, and from six to eight broad, their situation on the sides of the animal being at one-fifth of its length from the snout. The breadth of the tail is from fifteen to twenty inches. There is no dorsal fin, but a sharp ridge runs down the centre of the back, the edge of which is generally found to be rough and worn, as if by rubbing against the ice. Crantz describes the narwal as being black; it is only in young specimens that this color can be said to prevail; at an early age the narwal is blackish-gray on the back, with numerous darker spots and markings running into each other, forming a general dusky-black surface. The sides are almost white, with dusky and more open markings; the under surface is white. In adult specimens, the ground color of the back is yellowish-white, with markings varying from dark gray to dusky-black, and of a roundish or oval figure, with interspaces of white or yellowish-white between them. The skin resembles that of the common Greenland whale, (*balæna mysticetus*), but is thinner. The female narwal produces a single young one at a birth, which she nourishes with milk for several months; the teats are situated near the origin of the tail.

The narwal is gregarious, associating in troops of from six or eight to twenty or more; and numbers are often seen clustered together, both in the open sea and in bays and inlets free from the ice, forming a compact phalanx, moving gently and slowly along. Under such circumstances the

independent movements of each individual are necessarily embarrassed, so that a considerable slaughter may be easily effected among them. When attacked at such a time, the hind ranks, instead of turning against their assailants, press upon those before, sliding their long weapons over the glossy backs of their leaders, and all becomes disorder and confusion. Opportunities of this kind are welcome to the Greenlanders, to whom the narwal is an important animal.

The origin of the word narwhale, narwhal, or narwal, is said to be from the Teutonic *nar*, or *ner*, which signifies a beak or projecting snout; and *wal*, *wale*, or *whale*, an indiscriminate word, in the same great family of languages, for any of the cetacea.

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## NEW ZEALAND.

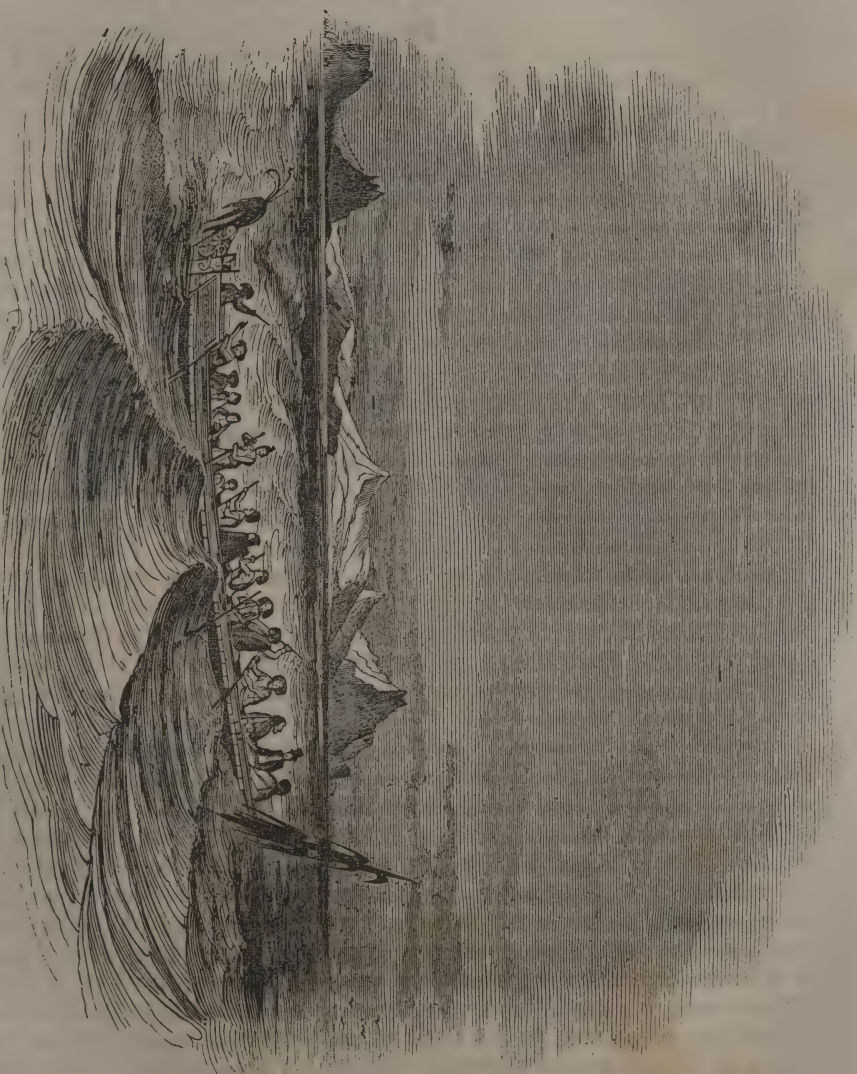
**N**EW ZEALAND, filling a large space in the south Pacific, extending from 34° to 47° south latitude, and from 167° to 179° east longitude, was discovered by Tasman, a Dutch navigator, in 1642. The vast southern Pacific was then an almost unexplored region, and though nearly two centuries had elapsed since European navigators discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, the mine of enterprise which was then opened still continued to attract their chief attention, and to satisfy their maritime ardor. The reputed existence of a fifth continent, placed in the southern hemisphere, and vague rumors of its supposed rich productions, inflamed the imaginations of geographers, and proved a wholesome stimulus to the progress of discovery. Tasman was despatched by Anthony Van Diemen, governor of the Dutch East Indies, and sailed on the 14th of August, 1642, from the Port of Batavia, in company with another vessel under his command. He first discovered the island now known as Van Diemen's Land; and pursuing his voyage towards the east, again saw land on the 13th of September, and following the line of coast anchored next day within a large bay. Here for the first time he had an opportunity of seeing the natives, who came out in two canoes, and hailed the strangers in a strong rough voice, but they did not approach very near to the ship. On the following day, a canoe with thirteen men came within a stone's throw, but no temptations could induce them to come on board the ship. Tasman describes them as of the common stature and strong-boned; their complexion between brown and yellow, and their black hair tied up in the Javanese fashion, on the crown of the head, with the addition of a large feather stuck therein. Seven other canoes in the meantime put off from the shore, and Tasman, doubtful of their intentions, hoisted out one of his boats, which being manned by a quartermaster and six seaman, was on its way to the other ship to put her commander on his guard, when the canoes ran violently in upon the boat and nearly upset it, at the same time making a desperate attack upon the boat's crew. Three of the men were killed and one mortally wounded. The savages then hastily retreated, carrying with





NEW ZEALAND—MISSION.

NEW ZEALAND—CAPE WANGARI—NATIVES.





them one of the dead bodies. Tasman immediately weighed anchor, and gave the place the name of the Bay of Murderers. Thus inauspiciously did the first interview of the New-Zealanders with Europeans terminate. Tasman had not been able to bring his guns to bear upon the retreating islanders, and the savages could not as yet appreciate the hostile power which they had aroused. When the ship had got under sail, twenty-two canoes followed her, and advancing within range of the guns, were fired upon, and one man being killed, and the shot striking the canoes, they turned toward the shore. The man who was killed bore a white flag in his hand. Tasman's course precluded him from ascertaining that what he took for a large bay was the strait separating the northern from the southern island, which unitedly are known under the name of New Zealand. He therefore naturally looked upon the other island as a continuation of the same land, and that in fact he was upon the shores of the new continent, believed to exist in this part of the southern ocean. "It is," he says, "a very fine country, and we hope it is a part of the unknown south continent." One of his countrymen had made a similar mistake about a quarter of a century before, having come in sight of land which he conceived to be part of a continent, and to which he gave the name of Staten land, or State's land. Just at this time, or a few months afterward, the supposed continent was discovered to be an island of no great extent; but Tasman believed that he had also fallen in with a portion of Staten land or the southern continent. When it was ascertained that the country called Staten land was only an island, Tasman's discovery received the name of New Zealand. On the 4th of January he passed the north-western extremity of New Zealand, which he named Cape Maria Van Dieman, in honor of a lady to whom it is said he was attached, the daughter of the governor under whose auspices the expedition was projected.

It was about a century after Tasman's voyage, before New Zealand was again visited by Europeans; but on the 6th of October, 1769, Captain Cook, then making his first voyage of circumnavigation in the *Endeavor*, came in sight of the island.

Captain Cook approached New Zealand from the west, on his passage from the Society islands, while Tasman had reached it from the east. The general opinion on board the *Endeavor* was that they also had found the "*Terra Australis Incognita*." On the 8th Cook anchored, and soon after went on shore accompanied by Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Banks and Dr. Solander, and were unhappily attacked by the natives, on whom they were compelled to fire in self-defence. An attempt at friendly intercourse was made the day following, but though aided by the persuasions of a native of Otaheite on board the *Endeavor*, it proved unsuccessful. The *Endeavor* did not leave this part of the coast without an unfortunate collision with the natives, who fought in the most obstinate manner against an unequal force, the contest ending in four of the savages being killed. Two youths, one aged 19, and the other 11, were taken on board the ship, where they expected instant death, but being kindly treated, soon recovered their spirits. Being unable to procure provisions at this place, to which Cook gave the name of Poverty Bay, the anchor was weighed, and the *Endeavor*, pursuing the line of coast, came to the supposed bay in which Tasman had anchored, and which Cook found to be a strait separating the islands: in the maps it bears the name of Cook's straits.

The next epoch in the intercourse with New Zealand, arose out of the proximity of the English settlements in New South Wales, founded at the close of the last century, the distance from them being about 1,200 miles; while New Zealand is not more than two or three days' sail from Norfolk island, where a settlement was commenced in 1793. The natives of New Zealand have frequently visited Sydney, Port Jackson, and other Australian ports. At a somewhat later period, the ships engaged in the South sea whale fishery, began to frequent New Zealand; and the government at New South Wales availed themselves of this medium to send presents of cattle, grain, and such other articles as were calculated to promote the social improvement of the natives.

A third stage in the intercourse of New Zealand with civilized nations is marked by the arrival of Christian missionaries in 1814, after they had remained several years in New South Wales. The Church Missionary Society commenced this work, in which other societies were engaged, and their operations during the last twenty-five years, have had some important influence on the New Zealand character. The island has also become an active scene of commercial enterprise, and as the Australian colonies increase in wealth and population, New Zealand will be brought into still closer connexion with the habits and wants of civilization.

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## THE DODO.

**T**HE engraving represents a bird, of the existence of whose species a little more than two centuries ago there appears to be no doubt, but which is now supposed to be entirely extinct. It must be obvious that such a fact offers some of the most interesting and important considerations; and the subject, therefore, has claimed the particular attention of several distinguished naturalists.

In Herbert's Travels, published in 1634, is a description of this bird, which is very quaint and curious:—

“The Dodo comes first to our description, here, and in Daygarrois; (and no where else, that ever I could see or heare of, is generated the Dodo.) (A Portuquize name it is and has reference to her simplenes,) a bird which for shape and rareness might be called a Phœnix (wer't in Arabia;) her body is round and extreame fat, her slow pace begets that corpulencie; few of them weigh lesse than fifty pound: better to the eye than the stomach: greasie appetites might perhaps commend them, but to the indifferently curious nourishment, but prove offensive. Let's take her picture: her visage darts forth melancholy, as sensible of nature's injurie in framing so great and massie a body to be directed by such small and complementall wings, as are unable to hoise her from the ground, serving only to prove her a bird; which otherwise might be doubted of: her head is variously drest, the one halfe hooded with downy blackish feathers; the





THE DODO.

other, perfectly naked; of a whitish hue, as if a transparent lawne had covered it: her bill is very howked and bends downwards, the thrill or breathing place is in the midst of it; from which part to the end, the colour is a light greene mixed with a pale yellow; her eyes be round and small, and bright as diamonds; her cloathing is of finest downe, such as you see in goslings: her trayne is (like a China beard) of three or four short feathers; her legs thick, and black, and strong: her tallons or pounces sharp, her stomack fiery hot, so as stones and iron are easily digested in it; in that and shape, not a little resembling the Africk Oestriches: but so much, as for their more certain differance I dare to give thee (with two others) her representation."

In this description there are several details that are no doubt inaccurate; such as the iron-digesting stomach; but the more important particulars agree with other evidence.

In a paper "on the natural affinities that connect the orders and families of birds," published in the Transactions of the Linnean Society, the following observations occur on the Dodo:—

"Considerable doubts have arisen as to the present existence of the Linnean *Didus* (Dodo;) and they have been increased by the consideration of the numberless opportunities that have lately occurred of ascertaining the existence of these birds in those situations, the Isles of Mauritius and Bourbon, where they were originally alleged to have been found. That they once existed I believe cannot be questioned. Besides the descriptions given by voyagers of undoubted authority, the relics of a specimen preserved in the public repository of this country bear decisive record of the fact. The most probable supposition that we can form on this subject is, that the race has become extinct in the before-mentioned islands, in consequence of the value of the bird as an article of food to the earlier settlers, and its incapability of escaping from pursuit."

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## THE HORNED PHEASANTS OF INDIA.

**P**HEASANTS form one of the most interesting groups of the feathered race, whatever be the point of view in which we contemplate them.

Their beauty of form and the splendor of their hues have attracted universal admiration. Many dazzle by the metallic lustre of their plumage, which gleams with green, and blue, and gold. Such, for example, is the case with that gorgeous bird the Impeyan pheasant of the Himalayan Mountains, which it has several times been attempted to bring alive into this country, but hitherto without success. Others, as the golden pheasant of China, delight us with the richness and multiplicity of their tints, which contrast admirably with each other. The common pheasant, now naturalized over the greater portion of Europe, is exceedingly beautiful, but it is far surpassed by many of its congeners, of which we may mention that elegant Chinese






THE HORNED PHEASANT.

species, the *Phasianus Reeresii*. It is to be observed, however, that this beauty of plumage is confined to the males: the females are universally attired in a sober dress of brown, often, indeed, exquisitely penciled with spots and zigzag lines, but totally destitute of the brilliant hues which glisten in their mates. Independently, however, of the beauty of the pheasant tribe, there is another point of interest which cannot be overlooked—we allude to their value as it respects the table. The flesh of all the gallinaceous birds affords to man a wholesome and nutritious food, and that of the pheasants is deservedly in high estimation.

The pheasants are all natives of Asia. The common pheasant was originally brought from the river Phasis by the Greeks in some of their earlier expeditions; that of the Argonauts under Jason has the popular credit of having introduced it. However this may be, the name given to the bird by the Greeks, of which all our modern European names for it are merely corruptions, points to the banks of the Phasis as the place from which it was derived; and to the present day the pheasants of Mingrelia (the Colchis of the ancients) are celebrated for their beauty and size. Extreme brilliancy of plumage is in general the characteristic of birds dwelling in torrid regions beneath a glowing sky; such is not the case as it regards the most gorgeous and beautiful of the pheasant tribe. On the contrary, the high mountains of the Himalaya, bordering upon the limits of perpetual snow, are tenanted by the most splendid of this family. The Impeyan pheasant is an example in point: adapted for regions where the temperature is at the most only moderate, and often at a low degree, this noble bird soon dies when taken from its alpine home into the burning lowlands of India; and hence arises one of the difficulties in the way of our obtaining living specimens here. But besides the Impeyan pheasant, the Himalaya chain of mountains presents us with a group or genus of this family, containing a very limited number of species remarkable both for their great beauty and their characters, which indicate an affinity to the turkeys, between which group and that of the genuine pheasants, they constitute an intermediate link. The genus to which we allude is that termed *Tragopan* (Cuvier), of which three species only are known. They are easily distinguishable from all the rest by the presence of large throat-wattles, or naked carunculated flaps of skin, (resembling those of the turkey,) which extend from the naked cheeks, spread over the throat, and proceed down each side of the neck, while from behind each eye rises a soft fleshy horn. The whole of these appendages are capable of being contracted and dilated at pleasure, or at least in accordance with the emotions of anger, fear, &c., as we see in the male turkey: the tints of the horns and wattles are rich purple, mingled with scarlet, and are most probably changeable from one hue to another. The tail is broad and rounded, and the plumage is dotted with round spots of white on a brown or red ground, the effect of which is very pleasing.



## THE MOCKING-BIRD,

HICH, in extent and variety of vocal powers, stands unrivaled by the whole feathered songsters of America or perhaps any other country, is peculiar to the New World; and inhabits a very considerable extent of both North and South America, having been traced from the States of New England to Brazil, and also among many of the adjacent islands. They are, however, much more numerous in those States south than those north of the river Delaware; being generally migratory in the latter, and resident (at least many of them) in the former. A warm climate, and low country not far from the sea, seems most congenial to their nature; the species are accordingly found to be less numerous to the west than east of the great Alleghany range, in the same parallels of latitude. In these regions the berries of the red cedar, myrtle, holly, many species of smilax, together with gum berries, gall berries, and a profuse variety of others, abound, and furnish them with a perpetual feast. Winged insects also, of which they are very fond and very expert in catching, are there plentiful even in the winter season.

The precise time at which the mocking-bird begins to build his nest varies according to the latitude in which he resides, from the beginning of April to the middle of May. There are particular situations to which he gives the preference. A solitary thorn-bush, an almost impenetrable thicket, an orange-tree, cedar or holly-bush, are favorite spots, and frequently selected. It is no great objection to the bird that a farm or mansion-house happens to be near; always ready to defend, but never over-anxious to conceal, his nest, he very often builds within a small distance of the house, and not unfrequently in a pear or apple-tree, rarely at a greater height than six or seven feet from the ground. The nest varies a little according to the conveniency of collecting suitable materials. Generally it is composed of, first, a quantity of dry twigs and sticks, then withered tops of weeds of the preceding year, intermixed with fine straw, hay, pieces of wool and tow; and, lastly, a thick layer of fine fibrous roots, of a light brown color, lines the whole. The female sits fourteen days, and generally produces two broods in the season, unless robbed of her eggs, in which case she will even build and lay the third time. She is, however, very jealous of her nest, and very apt to forsake it if much disturbed.

During the period of incubation, neither cat, dog, animal nor man can approach the nest without being attacked. The cats, in particular, are persecuted whenever they make their appearance, till obliged to retreat. But his whole vengeance is more particularly directed against that mortal enemy of his eggs and young, the black snake. Whenever the insidious approaches of this reptile are discovered, the male darts upon it with the rapidity of an arrow, dexterously eluding its bite and striking it violently and incessantly about the head, where it is very vulnerable. The snake soon becomes sensible of its danger, and seeks to escape; but the intrepid defender of his young redoubles his exertions, and, unless his antagonist be

of great magnitude, often succeeds in destroying him. All his pretended powers of fascination avail nothing against the vengeance of this noble bird. As the snake's strength begins to flag, the mocking-bird seizes and lifts it up partly from the ground, beating it with its wings, and when the business is completed, he returns to the nest of his young, mounts the summit of the bush, and pours forth a torrent of song in token of victory.

The mocking-bird is nine inches and a half long and thirteen across when its wings are spread. Some individuals are, however, larger and some smaller, those of the first hatch being uniformly the largest. The upper parts of the head, neck, and back are a dark brownish ash, and when new moulted, a fine light gray; the wings and tail are nearly black, the first and second rows of coverts tipped with white; the primary, in some males, are wholly white, in others tinged with brown. The first three primaries are white from their roots as far as their coverts; the white on the next six extends from an inch to one and three-fourths farther down, descending equally on each side the feather; the tail is cuneiform; the two exterior feathers wholly white, the rest, except the middle ones, tipped with white; the chin is white; sides of the neck, breast, belly, and vent, a brownish white, much purer in wild birds than in those that have been domesticated; iris of the eye, yellowish cream colored, inclining to golden; bill black; the base of the lower mandible whitish; legs and feet black and strong. The female much resembles the male, and is only distinguishable by the white of her wings being less pure and broad, and her black feathers having a more rusty hue.

It will be seen from this description, that though the plumage of the mocking-bird is none of the homeliest, it has nothing gaudy or brilliant in it; and, had he nothing else to recommend him, would scarcely entitle him to notice. But his figure is well proportioned and even handsome. The ease, elegance, and rapidity of his movements, the animation of his eye, and the intelligence he displays in listening and laying up lessons, from almost every species of the feathered creation within his hearing, are really surprising, and mark the peculiarity of his genius. To these qualities may be added that of a voice full, strong, and musical, and capable of almost every modulation, from the clear, mellow tones of the wood-thrush to the savage scream of the bald eagle. In measure and accent he faithfully follows his originals; in force and sweetness of expression he greatly improves upon them. In his native groves, mounted on the top of a tall bush or half-grown tree, in the dawn of the morning, while the woods are already vocal with a multitude of warblers, his admirable song rises preëminent over every competitor. The ear can listen to his music alone, to which that of all the others seems a mere accompaniment. Neither is his strain altogether imitative. His own native notes are bold and full, and varied seemingly beyond all limits. They consist of short expressions of two, three, or, at the most, five or six syllables, generally interspersed with imitations, and all of them uttered with great emphasis and rapidity, and continued with undiminished ardor for half an hour or an hour at a time. His expanded wings and tail, glistening with white, and the buoyant gaiety of his action, arresting the eye as his song most irresistibly does the ear, he sweeps round with enthusiastic ecstasy, and mounts and descends as his song swells or dies away. While thus exerting himself, a bystander, destitute of sight, would suppose that the whole feathered tribes had assembled





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together on a trial of skill, each striving to produce his utmost effect. He often deceives the sportsman, and sends him in search of birds that are not, perhaps, within miles of him, but whose notes he exactly imitates: even birds themselves are frequently imposed upon by this admirable mimic, and are decoyed by the fancied calls of their mates, or dive with precipitation into the depth of thickets at the scream of what they suppose to be the sparrow-hawk.

The mocking-bird loses little of the power and energy of his song by confinement. In his domesticated state, when he commences his career of song, it is impossible to stand by uninterested. He whistles for the dog; Cæsar starts up, wags his tail, and runs to meet his master. He squeaks like a hurt chicken, and the hen hurries about with hanging wings and bristled feathers, chuckling to protect its injured brood. The barking of the dog, the mewing of the cat, the creaking of a passing wheelbarrow, follow with great truth and rapidity. He repeats the tune taught him by his master, though of considerable length, fully and faithfully; he runs over the quaverings of the canary, and the clear whistlings of the Virginia nightingale, or red-bird, with such superior execution and effect that the mortified songsters feel their own inferiority, and become altogether silent, while he seems to triumph in their defeat by redoubling his exertions.

This excessive fondness for variety, however, in the opinion of some, injures his song. His elevated imitations of the brown thrush are frequently interrupted by the crowing of cocks; and the warblings of the blue-bird, which he exquisitely manages, are mingled with the screaming of swallows or the cackling of hens. Amidst the simple melody of the robin one is suddenly surprised by the shrill reiterations of the whippoorwill, while the notes of the kildeer, blue-jay, martin, baltimore, and twenty others, succeed, with such imposing reality, that the auditors look round for the originals, and with astonishment discover that the sole performer in this singular concert is the admirable bird now before us. During this exhibition of his powers, he spreads his wings, expands his tail, and throws himself around the cage in all the ecstasy of enthusiasm, seeming not only to sing but to dance, keeping time to the measure of his own music. Both in his native and domesticated state, during the stillness of the night, as soon as the moon rises, he begins his delightful solo, making the whole neighborhood resound with his inimitable medley.

The mocking-bird is frequently taken in trap-cages, and, by proper management, may be made sufficiently tame to sing. The usual price of a singing-bird is from seven to fifteen, and even twenty dollars. Fifty dollars have been paid for a remarkably fine singer; and in one instance a hundred dollars were refused for a still more extraordinary one. Attempts have been made to induce these charming birds to pair, and rear their young in a state of confinement, and the result has been such as to prove it, by proper management, perfectly practicable.



## THE PASSENGER PIGEON.

**T**HIS remarkable bird inhabits a wide and extensive region of North America, spreading over the whole of Canada, and extending to the Gulf of Mexico southward, while the Stony Mountains appear to limit its westward range. In the United States it occasionally visits and breeds in almost every quarter.

The passenger-pigeon is sixteen inches long, and twenty-four in extent, and it is in this circumstance of size, and that of plumage, that we are chiefly to look for the distinguishing external difference between this and other species of the pigeon. A light slate color predominates in the head and upper part of the neck, and a darker slate in the back, wings, and rump coverts. The throat, breast, and sides, as far as the thighs, are of a reddish hazel; the lower part of the breast and the thighs, fade into a brownish red; and the belly and the vent are white. The lower part of the neck and sides are of a resplendent gold, green, and purplish crimson, the latter most predominant. The tail is long, and all the feathers taper towards the point; the two middle ones are plain, deep black; the other five on each side hoary white, lightest at the tips, and deepening into bluish near the basis. The bastard wing is black; the legs and feet are lake seamed with white. The female is about half an inch shorter than the male, and an inch less in extent; she resembles the male generally in color, but less vivid and more tinged with brown.

The most remarkable characteristic of these birds is their associating together, both in their migrations and during the period of incubation, in such prodigious numbers as almost to surpass belief, and which has no parallel among any other feathered tribes on the face of the earth with which naturalists are acquainted.

These migrations appear to be undertaken rather in quest of food than merely to avoid the cold of the climate. The passenger pigeons are found lingering in the northern regions about Hudson's Bay so late as December; and their appearance is casual and irregular. As the beech-nut constitutes the chief food of this wild pigeon, in seasons when it is particularly abundant, corresponding multitudes of pigeons may be confidently expected. It sometimes happens that when they have consumed the whole produce of the beech-trees in one extensive district, they discover another at the distance of perhaps sixty or eighty miles, to which they regularly repair every morning, and return as regularly in the course of the day, or in the evening, to their place of general rendezvous, or, as it is usually called, the *roosting-place*. These roosting-places are always in the woods, and sometimes occupy a large extent of forest. When they have frequented one of these places for some time, the appearance it exhibits is surprising. The ground is covered to the depth of several inches, with their dung—all the tender grass and underwood destroyed—the surface strewed with large limbs of trees, broken down by the weight of the birds clustering one above another—and the trees themselves for thousands of acres, killed as com-



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pletely as if girdled with an axe. The marks of this desolation remain for many years on the spot; and numerous places could be pointed out where for several years after, scarce a single vegetable made its appearance. When their roosting places are first discovered, the inhabitants from considerable distances visit them in the night with guns, long poles, clubs, pots of sulphur, and various other instruments of destruction, and in a few hours fill many sacks and load their horses with them.

The breeding-place differs from the roosting-place in its greater extent. In the western countries these are generally in beech-woods, and often extend in nearly a straight line, across the country, for a very great way. One is mentioned in the State of Kentucky which stretched through the woods in nearly a north and south direction, was several miles in breadth, and said to be nearly forty in length. In this tract almost every tree was furnished with nests wherever the branches could accommodate them, a single tree frequently containing more than a hundred. At this place the pigeons made their first appearance about the tenth of April and left it altogether, with their young, before the 25th of May.

The nest of the wild pigeon is formed of a few dried, slender twigs, carelessly put together, and with so little concavity, that the young, when only half grown, can be easily seen from below. All accounts agree in stating that each nest contains only one young squab; but it is asserted that the pigeon breeds three or four times in the course of the same season. The young are so exceedingly fat, that the Indians, and many of the whites, are accustomed to melt down the fat for domestic purposes as a substitute for butter and lard.

As soon as the young are fully grown, and before they leave their nests, numerous parties of the inhabitants of the neighboring country often come with wagons, axes, beds, cooking utensils, many of them accompanied by the greater part of their families, and encamp for several days in these immense nurseries. It is said that the noise in the wood is so great as to terrify the horses; and when a person speaks he finds it difficult to make himself heard without bawling in the ears of those whom he addresses. The ground is strewn with broken branches, eggs, and young squab pigeons which have been precipitated from above, and on which herds of hogs fatten themselves. Great numbers of hawks, buzzards, and sometimes the bald eagle himself, hover about and seize the old or the young from the nests amidst the rising multitudes, and with the most daring effrontery. From twenty feet upwards to the tops of the trees the view through the woods presents a perpetual tumult of crowding and fluttering multitudes of pigeons. The noise of their wings is mingled with the frequent crash of falling timber; for the axe-men cut down those trees which seem to be most crowded with nests, and contrive to fell them in such a manner that in the descent they may bring down several others. The falling of one large tree sometimes produces 200 squabs little inferior in size to the old ones, and almost one mass of fat.

From the account given of the flight of vast flocks of the passenger-pigeon, it would appear as if they were hardly exceeded in extent or number by those of the locusts in the East. Mr. Wilson, the ornithologist, mentions some of these flights that he himself saw. On one occasion he was on his way to Frankfort, in Kentucky, where, about one o'clock, he saw a flock of pigeons, more immense in its numbers than any he had ever

witnessed, which flew in a compact body of several strata deep, at a height beyond gun-shot, with great rapidity and steadiness. The breadth of this vast possession extended from right to left so far as the eye could reach, and seemed greatly crowded in all its parts. Curious to determine how long this appearance would continue, Mr. Wilson took out his watch to note the time, and sat down to observe them. He waited more than an hour, but perceiving that this prodigious procession seemed rather to increase than diminish in numbers and rapidity, and being anxious to reach his destination before night, he went on. When he reached Frankfort, about four hours after he first saw the flock, the living torrent over his head seemed as numerous and extensive as ever. On a subsequent occasion Mr. Wilson reverts to this flock, and makes the following curious calculation. If we suppose the column to have been one mile in breadth, (and he believes it to have been much more,) and that it moved at the rate of one mile in a minute; four hours, the time it continued passing, would make the whole length 240 miles. Again, supposing that each square yard of this moving body comprehended three pigeons, the square yards in the whole space multiplied by three, would give 2,230,272,000 pigeons!

In the Atlantic States, though they never appear in such unparalleled multitudes, they are sometimes very numerous, and great havoc is made among them with the gun, the clap net, and various other implements of destruction. As soon as it is ascertained in a town that the pigeons are flying numerously in the neighborhood, the gunners rise *en masse*; the clap nets are spread out in suitable situations, and some live pigeons being made to flutter on a stick as birds just alighted, numbers of the passing flock are induced to descend and feed on the corn, buckwheat, &c., which they find strewed about; and, while thus engaged, the pulling of a cord covers them with the net—sometimes ten, twenty, or thirty dozen are taken at one sweep. Meantime the air is darkened with large bodies of them moving in various directions; the woods also swarm with them in search of acorns; and the thundering of the musketry is perpetual on all sides from morning till night. Wagon loads of them are poured into the market, where they sell from fifty to twenty-five, and even twelve cents per dozen; and pigeons are universally found at breakfast, dinner, and supper, until the very name becomes sickening. When they have been kept alive and fed for some time on corn and buckwheat, their flesh acquires great superiority; but in their common state they are far inferior to the full grown young ones or squabs.

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## THE WILD TURKEY.

**F**ROM the north-western territory of the United States to the isthmus of Panama constitutes the native country of the wild turkey; south of the isthmus it is not to be found. In Canada, and the now densely peopled parts of the United States, this bird was formerly very abundant; but the progress and aggressions of man have compelled them to seek refuge in the remote interior. It is not probable that the range of the wild



turkey extends to or beyond the Rocky Mountains. The Mandan Indians, who a few years ago visited the city of Washington, considered it one of the greatest curiosities they had seen, and prepared a skin of one to carry home for exhibition.

It is not necessary to be particular in describing the appearance of a bird so well known in its tame state. The difference consists chiefly in the superior size and beauty of plumage in the wild turkey; for, under the care of man, this bird has greatly degenerated, not only in Europe and Asia, but in its native country. When full grown, the male wild turkey is nearly four feet in length and nearly five in extent, from wing to wing, and presents, in its plumage, a rich assortment of colors, brown predominating, which might be vainly sought in the domesticated bird. Altogether, his appearance is such as, with other considerations, disposed Dr. Franklin to regret that he, rather than the bald eagle, had not been selected as the national emblem of the United States. But since the choleric temper and the vanity of the tame turkey have become proverbial in various languages, the authors of "American Ornithology" are well pleased that its effigy was not placed on the North American escutcheon.

The wild turkeys do not confine themselves to any particular food; they eat maize, all sorts of berries, fruits, grasses, beetles; and even tadpoles, young frogs, and lizards are occasionally found in their crops; but where the pecan nut is plenty, they prefer that fruit to any other nourishment. Their more general predilection, however, is for the acorn, on which they rapidly fatten. When an unusually profuse crop of acorns is produced in a particular section of country, great numbers of turkeys are enticed from their ordinary haunts in the surrounding districts. About the beginning of October, while the mast still remains on the trees, they assemble in flocks and direct their course to the rich bottom lands. At this season they are observed in great numbers on the Ohio and Mississippi. The time of this irruption is known to the Indians by the name of the *Turkey month*.

The males, usually termed *gobblers*, associate in parties numbering from ten to one hundred, and seek their food apart from the females; whilst the latter either move about singly with their young, then nearly two-thirds grown, or—in company with other females and their families—form troops, sometimes consisting of seventy or eighty individuals. They are all intent on avoiding the old males, who, whenever opportunity offers, attack and destroy the young, by repeated blows on the skull. All parties, however, travel in the same direction, and on foot, unless they are compelled to seek their individual safety by flying from the dog of the hunter, or their progress is impeded by a large river. When about to cross a river, they select the highest eminences, that their flight may be the more certain; and here they sometimes remain for a day or more, as if for the purpose of consultation, or to be duly prepared for so hazardous a voyage. During this time the males gobble obstreperously, and strut with extraordinary importance, as if they would animate their companions, and inspire them with hardihood. The females and young also assume much of the pompous air of the males, the former spreading their tails and moving silently around. At length the assembled multitude mount to the tops of the highest trees, whence, at a signal note from a leader, the whole together wing their way towards the opposite shore. Immediately after these birds have succeeded in crossing a river, they for some time ramble about without any apparent

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unanimity of purpose, and a great many are destroyed by the hunters, though they are then least valuable.

When the turkeys have arrived in their land of abundance, they disperse in small flocks, composed of individuals of all ages and sexes intermingled, who devour all the mast as they advance; this occurs about the middle of November. It has been observed that, after these long journeys, the turkeys become so familiar as to venture on the plantations, and even approach so near the farm houses as to enter the stables and corn cribs in search of food. In this way they pass the autumn and part of the winter. During this season great numbers are killed by the inhabitants, who preserve them in a frozen state, in order to transport them to a distant market.

Early in March they begin to pair. The sexes roost apart, but at no great distance, so that when the female utters a call, every male within hearing responds, rolling note for note, in the most rapid succession; not as when spreading the tail and strutting near the hen, but in a voice resembling that of the tame turkey, when he hears any unusual or frequently repeated noise. Where the turkeys are numerous, the woods, from one end to the other, sometimes for hundreds of miles, resound with this remarkable noise, uttered responsively from their roosting places. This is continued for about an hour; and, on the rising of the sun, they silently descend from their perches, and the males begin to strut, as if to win the admiration of their mates. Their process of approach to the females is remarkably pompous and ceremonious; and, in its course, the males often encounter one another, and desperate battles ensue, when the conflict is only terminated by the flight or death of the vanquished. With the hen whose favor is thus obtained the male is mated for the season, though he does not hesitate to bestow his attentions on several females whenever an opportunity offers. One or more females, thus associated, follow their favorite and rest in his immediate neighborhood, if not on the same tree, until they begin to lay, when they shun their mates, in order to save their eggs, which the male uniformly breaks if in his power. At this period the sexes separate, and the males, being much emaciated, retire and conceal themselves by prostrate trees, in secluded parts of a forest, or in the almost impenetrable privacy of a canebrake. By thus retiring, using very little exercise, and feeding on peculiar grasses, they recover their flesh and strength, and, when this object is attained, again congregate and recommence their rambles.

About the middle of April, when the weather is dry, the female selects a proper place in which to deposit her eggs, secured from the encroachment of water, and as far as possible concealed from the watchful eye of the crow. The nest is placed on the ground, either on a dry ridge, in the fallen top of a dead leafy tree, under a thicket of sumach or briars, or by the side of a log; it is of a very simple structure, being composed of a few dry leaves. In this receptacle the eggs are deposited, sometimes to the number of twenty, but more usually from nine to fifteen; they are like those of the domestic bird.

The female uses great caution in the concealment of her nest; she seldom approaches it twice by the same route; and on leaving her charge, she is very careful to cover the whole with dried leaves in such a manner as to make it difficult, even for one who has watched her motions, to indicate the

exact spot. Nor is she easily driven from her post by the approach of apparent danger ; but if an enemy appears, she crouches as low as possible and suffers it to pass. They seldom abandon their nests on account of being discovered by man ; but should a snake or other animal suck one of the eggs, the parent leaves them altogether. If the eggs be removed she again seeks the male and re-commences laying, though otherwise she lays but one set of eggs during the season. Several turkey hens sometimes associate, perhaps for mutual safety, deposit their eggs in the same nest, and rear their broods together. Mr. Audubon once found three females sitting on forty-two eggs. In such cases the nest is commonly guarded by one of the parties, so that no crow, raven, or even polecat dares approach it. The mother will not forsake her eggs, when near hatching, while life remains ; she will suffer an enclosure to be made around and imprison her rather than abandon her charge.

As the hatching generally occurs in the afternoon and proceeds but slowly, the first night is commonly spent in the nest ; but afterwards the mother leads them to elevated dry places, as if aware that humidity, during the first few days of their life, would be dangerous to them, they having then no other protection than a delicate, soft, hairy down. In rainy seasons wild turkeys are scarce, because when completely wetted the young rarely survive. At the expiration of about two weeks the young follow their mother to some low, large branch of a tree, where they nestle under her broadly curved wings. The time then approaches when they seek the open ground or prairie land during the day, in search of berries and grasshoppers, thus securing a plentiful supply of food and enjoying the genial influence of the sun. The young turkeys now grow rapidly, and in the month of August, when several broods flock together and are led by their mothers into the forest, they are stout, and able to secure themselves from the unexpected attacks of their enemies, by rising quickly from the ground, and reaching with ease the upper limbs of the tallest tree.

It is rather surprising that, though the introduction of this bird into Europe is comparatively modern, its origin has been so much lost sight of, that eminent naturalists of the last century expressed themselves with great uncertainty concerning its native country. Thus Belon, Aldrovand, Gessner, Ray, and others, thought that it came originally from Africa and the East Indies, and endeavored to recognize it in some of the domestic birds of the ancients. But its American origin is now clearly ascertained. This bird was sent from Mexico to Spain early in the 16th century, and from Spain it was introduced into England in 1524. Since that period they have been bred with so much care, that in England, as we read in ancient chronicles, their rapid increase rendered them attainable at country feasts, where they were a much esteemed dish, so early as 1585.

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## THE CASTOR-OIL PLANT



ELONGS to an order whose affinities have not yet been accurately limited by botanists ; but it is supposed to comprise at least 1500 species, distributed in each quarter of the globe from the equator to latitudes as high as Great Britain ; "sometimes," as Professor Lindley



remarks, "in the form of large trees, frequently of bushes, still more usually of diminutive weeds, and occasionally of deformed, leafless, succulent plants, resembling the cacti in their port." The *ricinus communis* becomes an annual in our climate, and its stem and branches are said to lose their ligneous nature, and afterwards, on being placed in a hot-house, to reassume their former characteristics. At Villefranche, near Nice, there were, in 1818, specimens in the open air above thirty feet high, which it was believed were the only instances in Europe of the species growing in an arborescent form. The tropical latitudes of Asia, Africa, and America, are the regions in which it is indigenous, and of course most flourishing.

The properties of the order of plants to which the *ricinus communis* belongs are remarkably varied, and highly valuable on account of their medical uses. Both Jussieu and Lindley have enumerated them in their respective systems of botany. The peculiar virtues of the plant reside principally in a milky secretion which it produces, the strength and efficacy of which are determined by the secretion being more or less copious. Some of the species exhale an aromatic odor, others a disagreeable and pungent one. The flowers of some may be used in preparing a decoction possessing useful tonic properties; in others, the leaves are sudorific; and again, the juice and root of some of the species may be taken as an emetic. The properties of the plant range from gentle and beneficial stimulants to rank poison; the nature of the poison, however, frequently being so volatile as to be deprived of its baneful effects by the action of fire; so that the roots of some species, which would be destructive of life if eaten in their natural state, become, after cooking, a nutritious food for sustaining and invigorating it. The preparation called turnsol is obtained from one of the plants of this order, so named from its turning its flowers to the sun; and caoutchouc is supplied by others of this widely diversified genus.

The *ricinus communis*, or castor-oil plant, is highly valuable for the excellent medical virtues of the oil which it furnishes: its root is said to be diuretic. The positions of the flowers are shown in the accompanying cut; but it is from the seeds that the oil is extracted, three of which, of an oblong, flattish form, are inclosed in each receptacle. The oil is prepared chiefly in the East Indies, and in the West India Islands, the United States, and also in the south of Europe.

In America, the seeds being stripped of their covering, are boiled about six hours in a considerable quantity of water, and the oil, as it rises to the surface in a white and frothy state, is carefully skimmed off. Successive boilings and straining in a canvass bag, bring it to the necessary degree of fineness and purity.

The oil which has been what is called "cold drawn," is generally held in the highest estimation. This method consists in the seeds being bruised in a mortar, in order to express the oil, the whole being afterwards tied up in linen bags, and strained until the oil separates from the bruised seeds.

A French chemist has proposed a third method of extracting the oil, founded on the circumstance of its remaining insoluble in alcohol.

The best castor-oil is of a pale straw color, and the more limpid it is the better are its qualities. The use of castor-oil in medicine is not of very old date; but not only are its excellencies generally acknowledged, but in some respects its properties are to be found in no other medicine. It was




THE CASTOR OIL PLANT.



formerly believed that the mode adopted for obtaining the oil by bruising the seeds was the means of rendering it harsh and acrid; but some French chemists, who made experiments both on the seed and its rind, found that the quality of the oil was not injured from the cause which had been supposed, but that some mismanagement attending the preparation, and which might occur under either system, occasioned the decomposition of a small portion of the essential properties of the oil.

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## THE JACA-TREE.

NE of the most interesting as well as singular productions of the vegetable kingdom, is the bread-fruit tree, originally found in the southeastern parts of Asia, and the islands of the Pacific, though now introduced into the tropical parts of the western continent, and the West India Islands. There are two species of it:—the bread-fruit, properly so called, with the leaves deeply gashed, or divided at the sides, which grows chiefly in the islands;—and the jack-fruit, or Jaca-tree, which grows chiefly in the main land of Asia.

The bread-fruit is a beautiful as well as a useful tree: the trunk rises to the height of about forty feet, and, in a full grown tree, is from a foot to fifteen inches in diameter; the bark is ash-colored, full of little chinks, and covered by small knobs; the inner bark is fibrous, and used in the manufacture of a sort of cloth; and the wood is smooth, soft, and of a yellow color. The branches come out in a horizontal manner, the lowest ones about ten or twelve feet from the ground, and they become shorter and shorter as they are nearer the top. The leaves are divided into seven or nine lobes, about eighteen inches or two feet long, and are of a lively green. The tree bears male and female flowers,—the males among the upper leaves and the females at the extremities of the twigs. When full-grown, the fruit is about nine inches long, heart-shaped, of a greenish color, and marked with hexagonal warts, formed into facets. The pulp is white, partly farinaceous and partly fibrous; but, when quite ripe, it becomes yellow and juicy. The whole tree, when in a green state, abounds with a viscid milky juice, of so tenacious a nature as to be drawn out in threads.

The bread-fruit tree continues productive for about eight months in the year. Such is its abundance, that two or three trees will suffice for a man's yearly supply, a store being made into a sour paste, called *make* in the islands, which is eaten during the unproductive season. When the fruit is roasted until the outside is charred, the pulp has a consistency not unlike that of wheaten bread, and the taste is intermediate between that of bread and roasted chestnuts. It is said to be very nourishing, and is prepared in various ways.

The timber of the bread-fruit tree, though soft, is found useful in the construction of houses and boats; the male flower, dried, serves for tinder, and the juice answers for bird-lime and glue; the leaves for packing and



THE JACA TREE.



for towels; and the inner bark, beaten together, makes one species of the South-sea cloth.

The Jaca or Jack, which is represented in our engraving, grows to the same, or even to a larger size, than the bread-fruit of the Society Islands; but it is neither so palatable nor so nutritious. Though its specific name implies that it is entire-leaved, the leaves of it are sometimes found lobed, like those of the other. The fruit often weighs more than thirty pounds, and contains two hundred or three hundred seeds, each of them four times as large as an almond. December is the time when the fruit ripens; it is then eaten, though not much relished; and the seeds or nuts also are eaten, after being roasted. There are many varieties of the Jaca-tree, some of which can hardly be distinguished from the seedling variety of the true bread-fruit. The fruit, and also the part of the tree in which it is produced, varies with the age. When the tree is young the fruit grows from the twigs; in middle age, it grows from the trunk; and when the tree gets old it grows from the roots.

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## THE DATE-PALM.

**I**N the countries that are congenial to its growth, the date is one of those plants which form the principal subsistence of man; and its locality is so peculiar that it cannot, strictly speaking, be classed either with the fruits of the temperate climates, or with those of the tropical. It holds a certain intermediate place, and is more abundant in regions where there are few other esculent vegetables to be found.

There is one district where, in consequence of the extreme aridity of the soil, and the want of moisture in the air, none of the Cerealia will grow: that district is the margin of the mighty desert which extends with but few interruptions from the Atlantic to the confines of Persia, an extent of nearly four thousand miles. The shores, the banks of the rivers, and every part of the region in which there is humidity, are exceedingly fertile; and even with unskillful culture produce the most abundant crops and the choicest fruits. But along the verge of the desert, and in the smaller oases or isles which here and there spot that wilderness of sand, the date-palm is the only vegetable on which man can subsist. Over the lowly vegetablès, of a saline and succulent description, which appear on this soil, the date palm raises its trunk and spreads its leaves, and is the sole vegetable monarch of the thirsty land. It is so abundant, and so unmixed with anything else that can be considered as a tree in the country between the states of Barbary and the desert, that this region is designated as the Land of Dates; and upon the last plain, as the desert is approached, and the only objects that break the dull outline of the landscape are the date-palm and the tent of the Arab. The same tree accompanies the margin of the desert in all its sinuosities; in Tripoli, in Barca, along the valley of the Nile, in the north of Arabia, and in the south-east of Turkey. Rearing its stem, and

expanding its broad and beautiful shade, where there is nothing else to shelter man from the burning rays of the sun, the palm-tree is hailed by the wanderer in the desert with more pleasure than he hails any other tree in any other situation. Nor is it for its shade alone, or even for its fruit, that the palm is so desirable in that country; for wherever a little clump of palms contrast their bright green with the red wilderness around, the traveler may in general be sure that he shall find a fountain ready to afford him its cooling water.

Although there are some palms more majestic, the date-palm is still a beautiful tree. Its stem shoots up in one cylindrical column to the height of fifty or sixty feet, without branch or division, and of the same thickness throughout its whole length. When it attains this height, its diameter is from a foot to eighteen inches. From the summit of this majestic trunk it throws out a magnificent crown of leaves, which are equally graceful in their formation and arrangement.

“Those groups of lovely date-trees bending  
Languidly their leaf-crowned heads,  
Like youthful maids, when sleep descending  
Warns them to their silken beds.”

The main stems of the leaves are from eight to ten feet long, firm, shining, and tapering; and each embraces, at its insertion, a considerable part of the trunk. The trunk of the palm is in fact made up of the remains of leaves, the ends of which are prominent just under the crown, but more obliterated towards the root of the tree. The bottoms of the leaves are enveloped in membranous sheaths, or fringed with very tough fibrous matter. These leaves are pinnated, or in the form of feathers, each leaf being composed of a great number of long, narrow leaflets, which are alternate, and of a bright lively green. Near the base of the leaf these leaflets are often three feet long; but even then they are not one inch in breadth, neither do they open flat, but remain with a ridge in the middle, something like the keel of a boat. When the leaves are young they are twisted together and matted up with loose fibres, which open and disperse as the leaf expands. The young leaflet is also armed at the extremity with a hard black spine or thorn. They are more stiff and firm than the leaves of any other tree.

The flowers come out in large bunches or spikes from between the leaves; they are at first inclosed in a spatha, or sheath, which opens to let them expand, and then shrivels and withers. The date-palm is a diœious tree, having the male flowers in one plant, and the female, or fruiting ones, in another. The male flowers are considerably larger than the female; and the latter, instead of having stamens in their centres, have the rudiments of dates, about the size of small peas.

The two distinct sexes of the date-tree appear to have been known from the remotest antiquity, as they are noticed by all the ancients who describe the tree. It is not a little remarkable that there is a difference in the fructification of the wild date and the cultivated. Wild dates impregnate themselves; but the cultivated ones do not without the assistance of art. In every plantation of cultivated dates, one of the labors of the cultivator consists in collecting the flowers of the male date, climbing to the top of the female with them, and dispersing the pollen on the germs of the dates. So essential is this operation that, although the male and female trees are



growing in the same plantation, the crops fails if it be not performed. A very remarkable instance of this is related by Delile in his "Egyptian Flora." The date-trees in the neighborhood of Cairo did not yield a crop in 1800. The French and Turkish troops having been fighting all over the country in the spring, field-labor of every kind was suspended, and, among the rest, the fecundation of the date. The female date-trees put forth their bunches of flowers as usual, but not one of them ripened into edible fruit. The pollen of the male trees appears to have been scattered over the country by the winds; and, as it had not been sufficiently abundant for reaching the germs, so as to insure fructification, an almost universal failure was the consequence. Michaux relates an instance in which the male date-trees of a whole province were wantonly destroyed by an invading army; but the inhabitants, who were apprehensive of such a result, having previously taken the precaution of collecting and preserving the pollen in close vessels, were enabled to impregnate the female flowers with it after the country was cleared from the destroying army. It is said that the pollen had thus preserved its powers during nineteen years.

Four or five months after the operation of fecundation has been performed, the dates begin to swell; and when they have attained to nearly their full size, they are carefully tied to the base of the leaves, to prevent them from being bruised or beaten by the wind. If meant to be preserved, they are gathered a little before they are ripe; but when they are intended to be eaten fresh, they are allowed to ripen perfectly, in which state they are a very refreshing and agreeable fruit. Ripe dates cannot however be kept any length of time, or conveyed to any great distance, without fermenting and becoming acid; and therefore those which are intended for storing up, or for being carried to a distant market, are dried in the sun upon mats. The dates which come to the European market from the Levant and Barbary are in this state; and the travelers in the desert often carry with them a little bag of dried dates, as their only or their chief sustenance during journeys of many hundred miles. In some parts of the East, the dates that fall from the cultivated trees are left upon the ground for the refreshment of the wayfaring man.

In the Hedjaz, as Burckhardt informs us, (and the observation applies very generally to other date countries,) the harvest of dates is expected with as much anxiety, and attended with as general rejoicing, as the vintage of the south of Europe. The crop sometimes fails, or is destroyed by locusts, and a universal gloom overspreads the population. The people do not depend upon the new fruit alone: but during the ten months of the year when no ripe dates can be procured their principal subsistence is the date-paste, called *adjoue*, which is prepared by pressing the fruit, when fully matured, into large baskets. "What is the price of dates at Mekka or Medina?" is always the first question asked by a Bedouin who meets a passenger on the road.

There is, indeed, hardly any part of the tree which is not serviceable to man, either as a necessary or as a luxury. When the fruit is completely ripened it will, by strong pressure, yield a delicious syrup, which serves for preserving dates and other fruits; or the fruit may be made into jellies and tarts. The stalks of the bunches of dates, hard as they are in their natural state, as well as the kernels, are softened by boiling, and, in that condition, are fit for feeding cattle. Dates, with the addition of water, afford by



THE WILD DATE PALM.



distillation a very good ardent spirit, which, as it does not come within the prohibition of the Koran against wine, is much used in some of the Mohammedan countries, and answers the same purpose of false excitement as the various kinds of fermented liquors and distilled spirits used by other nations. Palm-wine is also made from the date, and is also without the statute of the prophet. It is the sap of the tree, and can only be obtained by its destruction, so that such trees only as are unproductive are selected for the purpose of obtaining it. The time chosen for the purpose is when the tree is in the most active state of vegetation. The crown is then cut off and a cavity scooped in the top of the trunk. As the sap rises it exudes into this cavity at the rate of nearly a gallon a day for the first two weeks, after which it gradually diminishes, and, at the end of six weeks or two months, it stops entirely, and the tree, which has become completely dry by the operation, is cut down for firewood, or for some other of the purposes to which the trunk of the palm is applied. When the juice first exudes from the tree it is remarkably sweet, but it soon ferments and becomes vinous, with a certain degree of acidity. This juice may also be distilled into an ardent spirit; and, in fact, the genuine arrack, or rack, of the East is obtained from the juice of palms. In Egypt and Arabia the date-trees that have become unproductive through age or any other circumstance are commonly disposed of in this manner. What is called the *cabbage* of the palm is a conical tuft in the centre of the crown of leaves, and is formed of the future leaves in their undeveloped state. When the outside is removed, this part of the date-tree tastes very much like a fresh chestnut; but, like the palm-juice, it is obtained only by the destruction of the tree, and therefore it is not taken except from those trees that are cut for the sake of the sap or juice.

The fibrous parts of the date-tree are made into ropes, baskets, mats, and various other articles of domestic use; and so are the strings or stalks that bear the dates. The cordage of the ships navigating the Red Sea is almost exclusively of the inner fibrous bark of the date-tree. The trunk answers very well for posts, railings, and other coarse purposes; but it is not fit for being worked into planks, as its fibrous nature makes it easily split lengthwise into threads. The medullary part is much more abundant and soft towards the centre of the tree than towards the circumference, and therefore the trunk is generally cleft in two down the middle, for the purpose of allowing the heart to dry and harden. The medullary part of the tree is partly farinaceous, and soluble in water; and a nutritious substance may be obtained from it, resembling in consistency the sago which is obtained from another kind of palm. In the proper date-tree the quantity of this is small, and the quality not good; and is, in both respects, much exceeded by a smaller species of palm, a native of the East Indies.

Even the leaves of the date-palm have their uses;—their great length and comparatively small breadth, and their toughness, render them very good materials for the construction of coarse ropes, baskets, bags, fans, brooms, panniers and mats. The stem of the leaf, which forms a long and tapering rod or staff, serves many useful purposes. At Bagdad it is a trade to work them up into all sorts of domestic articles, such as bedsteads, couches, cages, and even tables and stools. When an even and solid surface is desired, the sticks are laid side by side, and then the surface planed to something of a level. The circular boats of the Tigris and

Euphrates are so entirely made from the leafstem and leaflets of the date-tree. The former serves for ribs, which are interwoven with the leaflets, the whole being afterwards coated with bitumen. On the continent of Europe palm-branches are a regular article of trade; and the religious processions, both of Christians and Jews, in the greater part of Europe, are supplied from some palm-forests near the shores of the Gulf of Genoa.

The cultivation of the date-tree is an object of the highest importance in the countries of the east. In the interior of Barbary,—in a great part of Egypt,—in the more dry districts of Syria,—and in Arabia, it is almost the sole subject of agriculture. In the valleys of the Hedjaz there are more than a hundred kinds of dates, each of which is peculiar to a district and has its own peculiar virtues. Date-trees pass from one person to another in the course of trade, and are sold by the single tree; and the price paid to a girl's father on marrying her often consists of date-trees.

A pleasant anecdote was related to Sir John Malcolm, which will serve to illustrate the indispensable character of this tree in the eyes of the Arabs, to whom indeed it seems to occupy much the same place in the vegetable kingdom as the camel does in the animal; and to be in an equal, perhaps a superior degree, a beautiful provision of nature for their wants and the peculiar physical circumstances of the country they inhabit. The story runs thus:—"Some time since an Arab woman, a native of Abusheher, went to England with the children of a Mr. Beauman. She remained in your country four years. When she returned, all gathered round her to gratify their curiosity about England. "What did you find there? Is it a fine country? Are the people rich? Are they happy?" She answered, "The country was like a garden; the people were rich, had fine clothes, fine houses, fine horses, fine carriages, and were said to be very wise and happy." The audience were filled with envy of the English, and a gloom spread over them which showed discontent at their own condition. They were departing with this sentiment when the woman happened to say, "England certainly wants one thing?"—"What is that?" said the Arabs eagerly. "There is not a single date-tree in the whole country!" "Are you sure?" was the general exclamation. "Positive!" said the old nurse; "I looked for nothing else all the time I was there, but I looked in vain." This information produced an instantaneous change of feeling among the Arabs; it was pity, not envy, that now filled their breasts, and they went away wondering how men could live in a country where there were no date-trees."

Our engraving represents a wild date-palm, found by MM. Leon and Laborde in the Sinai mountains. It exhibits none of the elegance of form under which the palm-tree is usually represented, and which is commonly supposed its proper characteristic, although actually caused by art,—the simple art of cutting away year by year the lower branches, or rather leaves, as the tree ascends in its growth. This not being attended to, a rampart is formed with the decayed branches, and the tree continues to grow from the midst of its own *debris*. Neglected by the desert Arab, who considers all culture as below his dignity, the palm-trees sometimes form impenetrable forests; but more frequently insolated near some spring, as in the engraving, it stands a most cheering beacon to the traveler, promising on the one hand water whereby his thirst may be appeased, and on the other grateful shade under which he may repose.



## GIGANTIC CHESTNUT TREE.



ONE of the most celebrated trees in the world, is the great chestnut tree of Mount Ætna, of which the accompanying engraving is a representation, as it existed in 1784; it is known by the name of the *Castagno de cento cavalli*, (the chestnut tree of a hundred horses.) A tradition says that Jane, Queen of Arragon, on her voyage from Spain to Naples, landed in Sicily, for the purpose of visiting Mount Ætna; and that being overtaken by a storm, she and her hundred attendants on horseback found shelter within the enormous trunk of this celebrated tree. At any rate the name which it bears, whether the story be true or not, is expressive enough of its prodigious size.

It appears to consist of five large and two smaller trees, which, from the circumstance of the bark and boughs being all outside, are considered to have been one trunk originally. The largest trunk is thirty-eight feet in circumference, and the circuit of the whole five, measured just above the ground, is one hundred and sixty-three feet; it still bears rich foliage, and much small fruit, though the heart of the trunk is decayed, and a public road leads through it wide enough for two coaches to drive abreast. In the middle cavity a hut is built for the accommodation of those who collect and preserve the chestnuts.

This is said, by the natives, to be "the oldest of trees." From the state of decay, it is impossible to have recourse to the usual mode of estimating the age of trees by counting the concentric rings of annual growth, and therefore no exact numerical expression can be assigned to the antiquity of this individual. That it may be some thousand years old, is by no means improbable. Adanson examined in this manner a Baobab tree in Senegal, and inferred that it had attained the age of five thousand one hundred and fifty years; and De Candolle considers it not improbable that the celebrated *Taxodium* of Chapultepec, in Mexico, which is one hundred and seventeen feet in circumference, may be still more aged.

It is evident that if the great chestnut tree were in reality a collection of trees, as it appears to be, the wonder of its size would at once be at an end. Brydone, who visited it in 1770, says:

"I own I was by no means struck with its appearance, as it does not seem to be one tree, but a bush of five large trees growing together. We complained to our guides of the imposition; when they unanimously assured us that, by the universal tradition, and even testimony of the country, all these were once united in one stem; that their grandfathers remembered this, when it was looked upon as the glory of the forest, and visited from all quarters; that for many years past it had been reduced to the venerable ruin we beheld. We began to examine it with more attention, and found that there was indeed an appearance as if these five trees had really been once united in one. The opening in the middle is at present prodigious; and it does indeed require faith to believe that so vast a space was once occupied by solid timber. But there is no appearance of bark on the inside

THE GREAT CHESTNUT TREE.





of any of the stumps, nor on the sides that are opposite to one another. I have since been told by the Canonico Recupero, an ingenious ecclesiastic of this place, that he was at the expense of carrying up peasants with tools to dig round the *Castagno de cento cavalli*, and he assures me, upon his honor, that he found all these stems united below ground in one root."

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## THE CITY OF YORK.

**Y**ORK was certainly a Roman, and, in all probability, was previously a British town, if so we may call one of those collections of huts occupying a cleared-out spot in the midst of the woods, which were the only towns the island had to boast of when in the possession of its first proprietors. The station or settlement, it is most likely, derived its name from the river on the banks of which it was placed, now the Ouse or Oose, but anciently the Oure or Oore, a sound which seems evidently to be present in *Eb-or-acum*, the Latinized form used by the Romans. The *orae* of *Eboracum* again is no doubt the origin of the modern York.

The Ouse flows through the city of York, the principal part of which, however, stands on the left or east bank of the river, immediately above its junction with the smaller stream called the Fors. Vessels of ninety tons burden can still ascend the Ouse as far as York; but in former times that city used to be accounted one of the chief marts of foreign commerce in the kingdom. From the foundation, however, of the port of Hull by Edward I. towards the close of the thirteenth century, the trade and commercial importance of York began rapidly to decline.

The latter place, nevertheless, retained for a long time after not merely the nominal rank, but the real consequence, of one of the principal towns in the kingdom. York is still the only city in England, except London, whose mayor enjoys the title of lord, for which, among other reasons, it claims to stand next in dignity to the metropolis, and to be accounted the second city in the realm. In the Roman times, however, it may be said to have been, more than London, the capital of the island. The Roman emperors who visited this country for the most part took up their residence at York. Here the emperor Severus died in the year 211, after making York his head-quarters during the three or four preceding years which he spent in the island. Three remarkable mounts, a little west from the city, still bear the name of the Hills of Severus: and many other remains that have been discovered in later ages attest the Roman domination. After the establishment of the Saxon Heptarchy, York became the capital of the kingdom of Northumberland. Although, on the arrival of the Normans, this district, like the rest of the kingdom, quietly submitted in the first instance to the invaders, it was the scene on which, soon afterwards, a struggle was made by a powerful confederacy of Saxon lords and their retainers to regain their independence. This insurrection, however, was



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JACOBSON



soon crushed by the activity and energy of the conqueror, who, laying siege to York, starved it into a surrender in six months, and then, after his usual fashion, erected a fortress in the close neighborhood of the town, to keep it for the future in awe. This was the origin of the present castle, situated at the southern extremity of the city, in the angle formed by the confluence of the two rivers. At a little distance is a ruin called Clifford's Tower, which was the keep of the old castle, and took its name from the Cliffords, whom William appointed the first governors of that stronghold. In early times Parliaments were frequently held at York; and in 1299, Edward I. even removed the courts of law from London to this city, where they continued to sit for seven years.

The city of York stands in the midst of an extensive plain, the largest certainly in Great Britain, if not, as has been sometimes asserted, in Europe. Viewed from the immediate neighborhood, the peculiarity which most strikes the eye is the ancient wall by which it is encompassed—supposed to have been built by Edward I., about 1280, on the line of the old Roman fortification. This wall, which had fallen greatly into decay, never having recovered from the damage it sustained when the city was besieged by Sir Thomas Fairfax and General Lesley, in 1644, has been lately repaired, and a walk is now formed along the top of part of it, which is a favorite resort of the inhabitants.

Seen from a greater distance, York presents a crowd of pointed spires shooting up from the midst of the houses, the indications of those numerous parish churches of which it still retains twenty-three out of forty-two which it formerly possessed. Far above all these, however, rise the enormous bulk and lofty towers of the Minster, which stands in the north part of the city, and to the east of the river. In the opposite quarter is the Castle, a large building erected about the beginning of the last century, on the site of the Conqueror's Fortress, and serving as a prison for criminals and debtors. Beside the County Prison are the County Hall and the Courts of Assize. The other principal public buildings are the Mansion House, an elegant structure, erected in 1725; the Guildhall, which dates from the middle of the fifteenth century, and is one of the finest Gothic rooms in England, being ninety-six feet in length by forty-three in breadth and twenty-nine and a half in height; the Council Chamber, built in 1819; the Assembly Rooms, built in 1730; the Theatre, first opened in 1769, and thoroughly repaired in 1822; together with the County Lunatic Asylum, the establishment of the same kind belonging to the Society of Friends, called the Retreat, the County Hospital, the New City Jail, the New City House of Correction, &c. The Archbishop of York has no house in the city, the only residence attached to the see being the Palace at Bishopthorpe, which stands on the west bank of the Ouse, about three miles farther down the river.

The entire circuit of the walls of York is about three miles and three-quarters, being somewhat less than that of the walls of the City of London. The space within, however, is much less densely occupied by streets and houses than it is in London. In 1831 the population was 25,359, having increased to that amount from 20,787 in the preceding ten years. The streets of York used formerly to be for the most part extremely narrow—many of the houses being built of wood, and, according to the common fashion of that style of architecture, often overhanging the road below with

their upper stories. Many of these ancient edifices, however, have been taken down of late years, and the principal streets widened and otherwise improved. Still the city, in almost every part, wears a look of other times; and could no more be mistaken for a modern town, notwithstanding the modern comforts and elegancies that are to be found here and there interspersed among the relics of the past, than an ancient lady could be mistaken for her grand-daughter because she may be attired in a gown or head-dress of the same fashion.

Among the most important of the recent alterations and repairs which have taken place in York, are to be reckoned those connected with the two rivers on the banks of which it stands. The Fors has been changed from little better than a stagnant ditch, into a clear and ornamental stream; and the navigation of the Ouse, which had been long neglected, has been greatly improved since the commencement of the present century. New bridges have likewise been thrown over both rivers; that over the Fors being a single arch, and that over the Ouse consisting of three elliptical arches, of which the center one is seventy-five, and each of the others sixty-five feet in span. The old bridge which crossed the Fors, was erected about the beginning of the fifteenth century; that of the Ouse is supposed to have been built at the expense of the Archbishop Walter Grey, about the year 1235. It consisted of five pointed arches, and the center arch was supposed to be the largest in Europe, with the exception of that of the Rialto, at Venice. A graveled walk was some years ago formed for about a mile along the left bank of the river, immediately to the south of the bridge, which, being now shaded with lofty elms, and having become a fashionable promenade, is one of the greatest ornaments of the city.

In a description of York, its ancient gates ought not to be forgotten. They are four in number, namely, Micklegate Bar to the south-west, over the entry from London; Walmgate Bar to the south-east, Monk Bar to the north-east, and Bootham Bar to the north-west, facing the great road from Scotland. All these structures are at least as old as the thirteenth century; and the inner arch of the Micklegate Bar, which is a portion of a circle, is supposed to be of the Roman times. Besides the four principal gates, there were formerly also five posterns, or smaller and more private entrances, but two of them, the Skeldergate and Castlegate posterns have, within these few years, been taken down.

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## THE MANGO TREE.

**I**NDIA and the south-western countries of Asia, Brazil and the West Indies, produce the Mango tree in great abundance. It was introduced into Jamaica in the year 1782. It is a large tree, attaining the height of thirty or forty feet, with thick and wide-extended branches, and has been compared to the oak, in its manner of the growth. The leaves are scattered, stalked, simple, about a span long and an inch or two wide, wavy, entire, tapering at each end, veiny, smooth, and shining.





THE MANGO TREE.





THE MAMMEE TREE.



The flowers are small and whitish, formed into pyramidal branches; the fruit has some resemblance to a short thick cucumber, and, on the average of the varieties, of which there are many, about the size of a goose egg. At first the fruit is of a green color, and in some of the varieties it continues so, while others become partly or wholly orange. When ripe, the mango emits a smell which is very pleasant, and the flavor of it then is exceedingly gratifying. Externally there is a thin skin; and upon removing that a pulp, which has some appearance of consistency, but which melts in the mouth with a cooling sweetness that can hardly be imagined by those who have not tasted that choicest of nature's delicacies. In the heart of the pulp there is a pretty large stone, resembling that of the peach, to which the pulp adheres firmly. In one variety of the mango, however, the stone does not exist.

The varieties of the mango are numerous. Upwards of eighty are cultivated, and the size of the trees and the quality of the fruits vary according to the countries where they grow, and the circumstances of their situation. While the fruit, as a whole, is one of the most delicious of vegetable products, in some varieties it is so deteriorated as to have been, rather disparagingly, perhaps, compared to a "mixture of tow and turpentine." The Mangos of Asia are said to be much superior in size and flavor to those of America; and so highly are some of the finer trees prized in India, that guards are placed over them during the fruit season. The largest variety is the "mango dodol," the fruit of which weighs upwards of two pounds.

Travelers and residents in the East speak in warm terms of the mango, as by far the best fruit that is generally produced in those regions, and as that which is most uniformly grateful to an European palate. The fruit is variously used. Sometimes it is cut into slices and eaten with or without wine, or macerated in wine; it is also candied, in order to its preservation; and it is frequently opened with a knife, and the middle filled up with fresh ginger, garlick, mustard, and salt, with oil or vinegar, that it may be eaten with rice, or after the manner of pickled olives.

The several parts of the tree are all applied to some use by the Hindoos. The wood is consecrated to the service of the dead; some employ it to construct the funeral piles with which the bodies are consumed, and others the coffins in which they are inclosed for burial. The stalks supply the place of areca or cuanga in the chewing of betel. From the flour of the dried kernels various kinds of food are prepared. To the leaves, flowers, bark, &c., many medicinal virtues are attributed, which it is not necessary to enumerate here.

## THE MAMMEE TREE.

**T**HE mammee tree belongs to the family of the *guttiferae*, the same with that of the *maengostan*. It is a native of the West Indies, where it grows to a large tree—sixty or seventy feet in height. Browne states that it is one of the largest in Jamaica; that it affords excellent timber, and abounds with a resinous gum. It is a handsome, straight-

growing tree, with a spreading head; and the leaves are oblong and obtuse, with very many fine, closely-set parallel veins. The fruit of the mammee is yellow, not unlike, either in shape or size, one of the largest russet apples. The outer rind, which easily peels off, is thick and leathery; beneath this is a second very delicate coat, which adheres closely to the pulp, and should be carefully removed before eating the fruit, as it leaves a bitter taste in the mouth, which, though not very strong at first, it is said will continue for two or three days. The seeds, of which there are two or three in the centre, are resinous and very bitter; but the pulp under the skin—which, when ripe, is of a deep yellow, resembling that of the finest apricot, and of considerable consistency—is very fragrant, and has a delicious but very peculiar flavor. It is eaten either raw and alone, or cut into slices with wine or sugar, or preserved in syrup. To people with weak stomachs, it is said to be more delicious than healthful; but still it is highly prized, and abundant in the West India markets. A liquor called *San Creole* is also obtained from its flowers in Martinique by distilling them with spirits. The mammee was found by Don in the vicinity of Sierra Leone; but whether native there, or imported from America, cannot be ascertained.

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## STONEHENGE.

**S** TONEHENGE is the most remarkable ancient monument now remaining in England; nor, indeed is there known anywhere to exist so stupendous an erection of the same character. Even in its present half-ruined state, the venerable pile retains a majesty that strikes, at the first glance, both the most refined and the rudest eye: and the admiration of the beholder grows and expands as a more distinct conception of the original plan of the structure gradually unfolds itself from amidst the irregular and confused mixture of the standing and the fallen portions, which for a short time perplexes the contemplation. It is then felt to be the produce, not only of great power and skill, but of a grand idea.

The situation is a highly commanding one. Stonehenge stands at a short distance north-west from the town of Amesbury, on the brow of one of those broad and gentle elevations which in many places slightly undulate the vast level of Salisbury Plain. The turnpike road from Amesbury to Shrewton, running in a north-west direction, passes close by it. It rises on the traveler's left as he proceeds from Amesbury, and is approached by a short avenue, marked by the traces of a ditch on each side. The direction of this avenue is from north-east to south-west, and it has been crossed obliquely by the turnpike road. It appears to have formed the only entrance to the enclosure in which the building stands, which is formed by a circular ditch, three hundred and sixty-nine yards in circumference, and having a slight rampart on the inner side. It has been supposed that, besides this, there were two other entrances; but both Dr. Stukeley and Sir Richard Colt Hoare, whose descriptions of Stonehenge are the fullest



and most careful that have been published, and between whom there is a perfect agreement in all material points, are decidedly of opinion that these breaks in the ditch have been made in modern times, probably to allow the passage of carts, by which so many of the stones have been carried away.

The building stands in the centre of this circular area. An outer circle of enormous upright blocks, having others placed upon them, as the lintel of a door is placed upon the side-posts, so as to form a kind of architrave, has enclosed a space of a hundred feet in diameter. The upright stones of this circle had been originally thirty in number, but only seventeen of them are now standing. The portion of the circle facing the north-east is still tolerably entire; and the doorway at the termination of the avenue may be said to be in perfect preservation. It consists of two upright stones, each thirteen feet in height, and between six and seven in breadth, with a third block placed over them, of about twelve feet in length, and two feet eight inches in depth. The space between the two posts is five feet, which is rather a wider interval than occurs between any two of the other pillars. Throughout the circle the broad side of the stone is placed in the line of the circumference, so that there must have been more of wall than of open space in the proportion of about six and a half to five. The imposts are fixed upon the uprights throughout by the contrivance called a tenon and mortise; the ends of the uprights being hewn into tenons or projections, and corresponding hollows being excavated in the imposts. They are oval or egg-shaped. Of course there are two tenons on each upright, and two mortices in each of the imposts, which are of the same number with the uprights. The principal workmanship must have been bestowed upon these fittings; for although the marks of the hewer's tool are visible upon the other parts of the stones, their surface has been left upon the whole, rude and irregular. They are made to taper a little towards the top; but even in this respect they are not uniform.

Within this great circle there is another, formed by stones not only much smaller, but also much ruder in their outline. Of these there had originally been forty, but only twenty of them can now be traced. This circle has never had any imposts; it is about eighty-four feet in diameter, and, consequently, the interval between it and the outer circle is eight feet.

The next enclosure has been formed of only ten stones, but they are of very majestic height, exceeding even that of those in the outer circle. They have been disposed in five pairs, and in the form of a half oval, or rather of a horseshoe; the upper part facing the north-east, or the great door. The two pairs at the terminations of the curve, which are distant from each other about forty feet, are each sixteen feet three inches high; but the height of the next two pairs is seventeen feet two inches; and that of the last pair, the station of which had been directly facing the opening, was twenty-one feet and a half. A striking effect must have been produced by this ascending elevation. A variety and lightness must also have been given to the structure by the arrangement of the stones here; not at equal distances, as in the two exterior rows, but in pairs, the interval between each two pairs being much greater than that between the two stones composing each pair. The uprights of this row have imposts over them, as in the outer circle. One of these imposts is sixteen feet three inches long. Of course the imposts here, not forming a continuous architrave, are only five in number. Of the five pairs, or rather *trilithons* (that is, com-



REMAINS OF STONEHENGE.



binations of three stones), although some of the shafts have been injured and mutilated, all are still in their places, except the fifth, or that which faced the entrance. This trilithon fell down on the 3d of January, 1797, and the stones now encumber a flat stone, of about fifteen feet in length, which lay at their base.

Lastly, there appears to have been a fourth enclosure, formed originally, as Stukely thinks, by nineteen stones, but only eleven now remain, entire or in fragments. These seem also to have been arranged in the shape of a half oval, with the open part, as in the case of the other, to the north-east. Although greatly inferior in height to those last described, they are still taller than those of the second circle. The most perfect, according to Sir R. C. Hoare, is seven and a half feet high, and twenty-three inches wide at the base, and twelve at the top. Like the second circle this row has never had any imposts.

Such is Stonehenge, as it still subsists; and in so far as the original design of the fabric can be traced from the portions of it which the waste of time has left, the appropriateness of the name, Stonehenge, which is Saxon, and signifies "the Hanging Stones," will be obvious enough from the account that has been given. But little doubt can be entertained that it is not a Saxon building. It is unquestionably the work of an age long preceding that in which the Saxons first obtained a footing in this island. Inigo Jones, in a posthumous work, has actually maintained the theory that it is a Roman erection—a temple of the god *Coelus*, he conceives. A more absurd notion was never taken up. It would be much more rational to say that it was a work of nature; a piece of architecture which had grown up where it stands, like the Giant's Causeway, or the Cave at Staffa. Stonehenge certainly resembles these structures quite as much it does anything the Romans have left us. The old popular tradition, recorded by Giraldus Cambrensis and other chroniclers, was that the stones had been brought to the place where they now are, and elevated into the air as we see them, by the great magician Merlin, from the Curagh of Kildare in Ireland. It is not impossible that the design may have been taken from a similar building on that great plain, where Giraldus Cambrensis says, that an erection like Stonehenge was actually to be seen in his day. He calls Stonehenge, *Chorea Gigantium*, the Giant's Dance. Among modern speculators, some, also, have attributed it to the Danes; but, since the publication of Stukeley's book (1740), opinion has almost universally been made up in favor of his theory, that it is a Druidical temple of the ancient Britons. Of late, certain other hypotheses have been engrafted upon this general idea—as, for instance, that it had an astronomical as well as a religious aim; but these are to be considered as rather developments than refutations of Stukeley's view. Astronomy was the soul of the Druidical religion, and may very possibly have influenced the form of the temples as well as the worship. But there is little chance that we shall be able in the present day, to recover any correct knowledge of the principles of this astronomical architecture.

One difficulty in the subject of Stonehenge has given rise to much discussion—From whence were the stones brought? According to Sir R. C. Hoare, in his magnificent work entitled the "Ancient History of South Wiltshire," (fol. Lon. 1812), the stones forming the outer circle and the fine trilithons of the grand oval are of the same kind with those which are

found in different parts of the surface of the Wiltshire Downs, and are there called Sarsen Stones, by which are meant stones taken from their native quarry in their rude state. They are a fine-grained species of silicious sandstone. Those forming the smaller circle, and the smaller oval again, are quite different. Some are an aggregate of quartz, feldspar chlorite, and hornblende; one is a silicious schist; others are hornstone, intermixed with small specks of feldspar and pyrites. What is called the altar, being the stone now covered by the central trilithon of the grand oval, is a micaceous fine-grained sandstone. From these circumstances, Mr. Cunnington first very ingeniously started the conjecture, that the original temple had probably consisted only of the great circle and the great oval, and that the two other rows were subsequent additions. In a late publication, entitled "*Hermes Britannicus*, (1828), the Rev. W. L. Bowles has taken up this idea, but has given it a new form, by supposing the lower stones to have formed the original temple, and the taller to have been afterwards added. He has connected this view with some very curious speculations as to the religion of the ancient inhabitants of Britain; for which, however, we must refer the reader to his work.

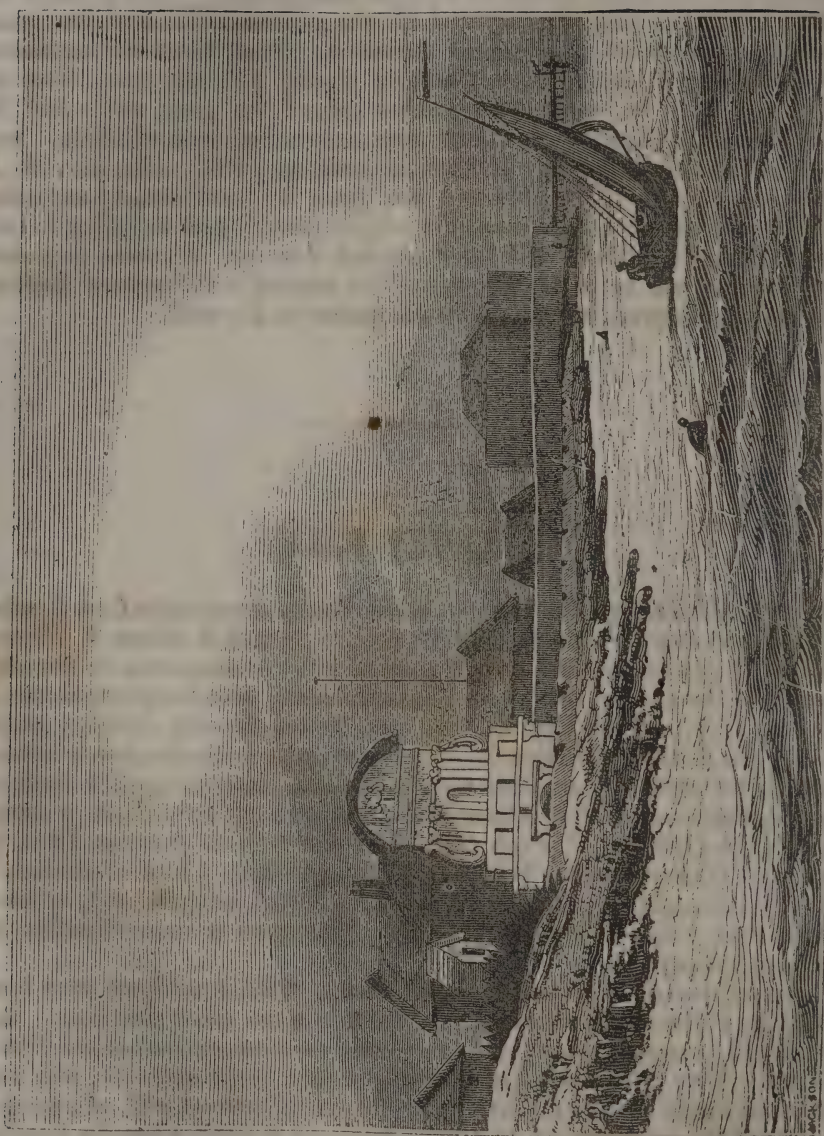
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## TILBURY FORT.

**S**ITUATED on the Thames, about twenty-seven miles from London, and exactly opposite to Gravesend, is the small village of Tilbury. It appears to have been a place of some consequence in the early period of the Saxon dominion in England, having been an episcopal seat of Cedda, Bishop of the East Saxons, who, in the seventh century, propagated the Christian religion in this country, and built churches in several places, but especially, as Bede reports, "in the city which, in the language of the Saxons, is called Ythancestre; and also in that which is named Tillaburgh (the first of which places is on the banks of the river Pant, the other on the banks of the Thames,) where, gathering a flock of servants of Christ, he taught them to observe the discipline of a regular life, as far as those rude people were then capable." Tillaburgh is unquestionably the present Tilbury.

A medicinal spring was discovered here in 1727, considered very beneficial in cases of hemorrhage, scurvy, and some other disorders. In a chalk hill near this place there are several curious caverns called Danes' Holes. They are constructed of stone, narrow at the entrance, and very spacious at the depth of thirty feet. The neighborhood still affords some traces of the camp formed by Queen Elizabeth in 1588, when the kingdom was threatened by the Spanish Armada. But the most interesting object the place affords is the Fort, represented in our engraving. It was originally built as a kind of block-house by Henry VIII., but was enlarged into a regular fortification by Charles II., in the year 1667, after the Dutch fleet had sailed up the river and burned three men-of-war at Chat-






TILBURY FORT.

ham. It was planned by Sir Martin Beckman, engineer to Charles II., by whom the works at Sheerness were also designed. The esplanade is very large, and the bastions are the largest of any in England. They are faced with brick, and surrounded with a double ditch or moat, the innermost being 180 feet broad, and having a good counterscarp. On the land side, there are two small redoubts of brick; but the chief strength on this side consists in its being able to lay all the adjacent level under water. On the side next the river is a very strong curtain, having in the middle a strong gate called the water gate, and the ditch palisaded. At the place intended for the water bastion, which was never built, stands a high tower, erected by Queen Elizabeth, called the block-house. Various additions have been made to this fort since the time of Charles II.; and it is now mounted with several formidable batteries, and contains comfortable barracks and other accommodations for the garrison, which consists of a fort major and a detachment of invalids.

The four Roman proconsular ways crossed each other in this vicinity; and there was an ancient ferry over the Thames, said to be the place where Claudius passed in pursuit of the Britons.

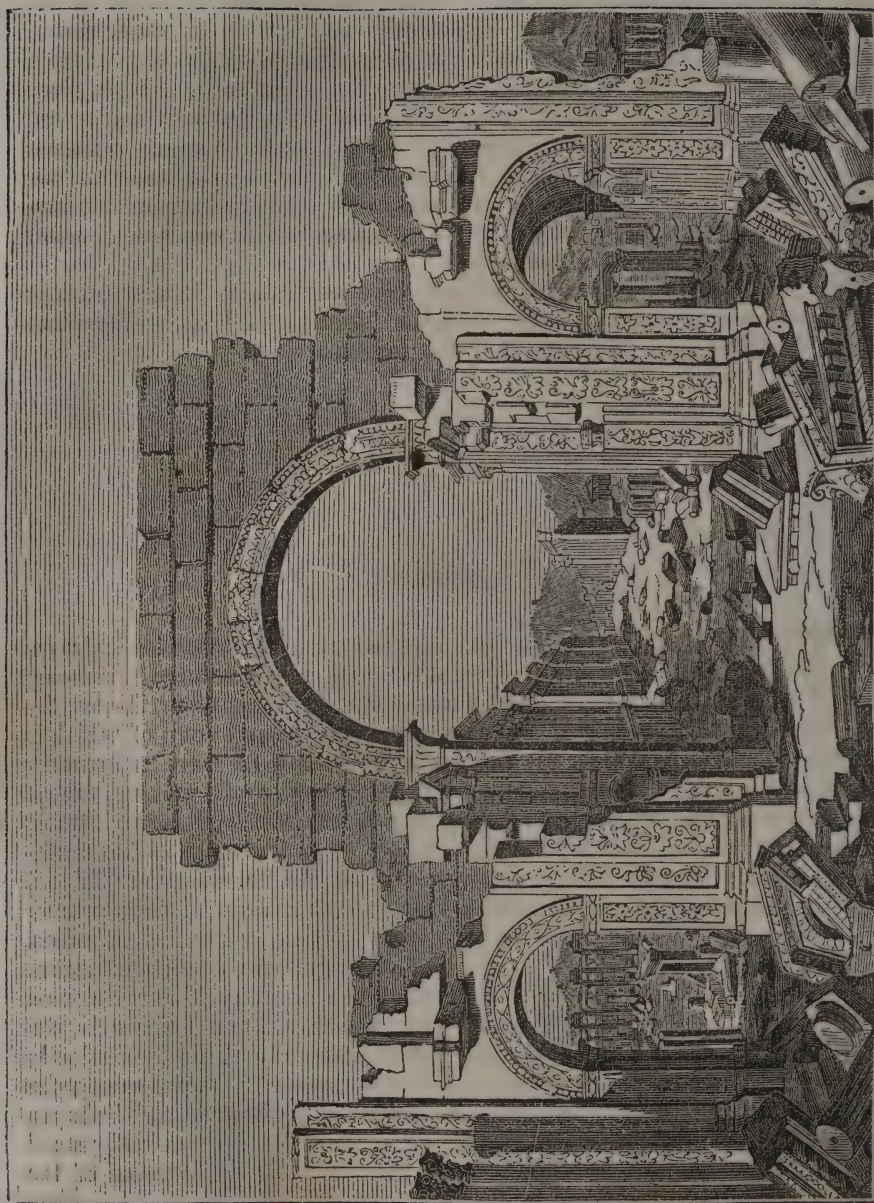
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## PALMYRA.

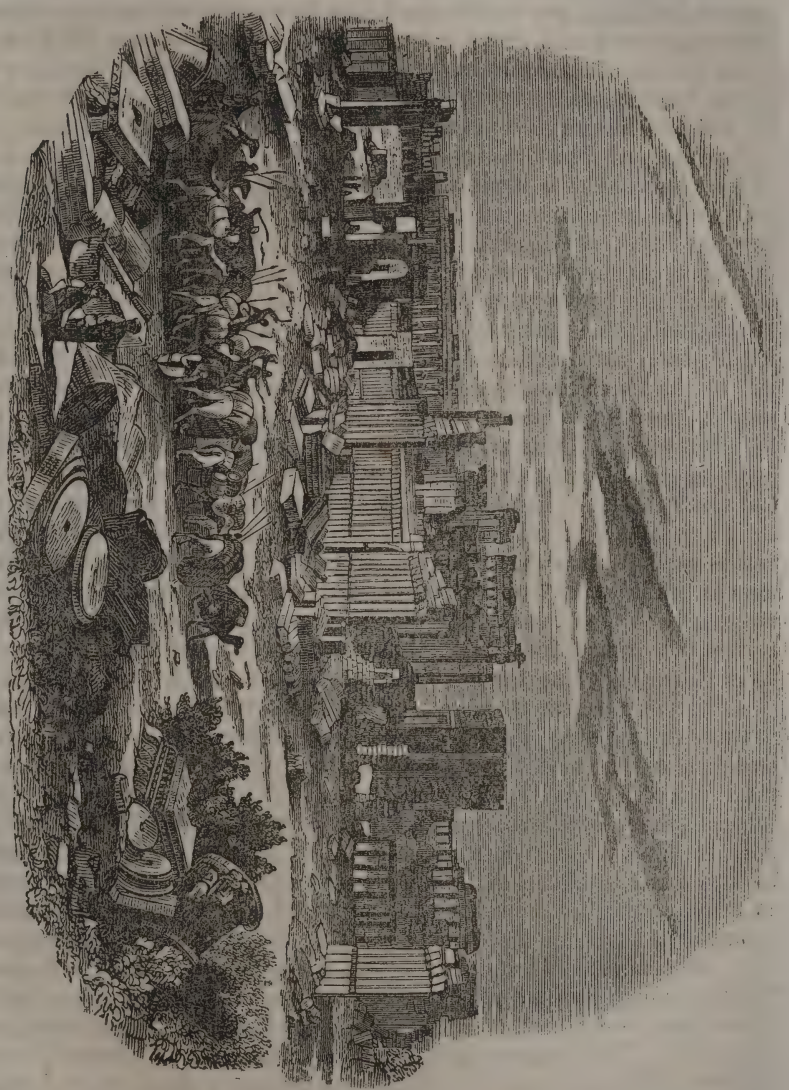
NRIVALED in extent and magnificence, the ruins of Palmyra rise in the midst of a vast ocean of sand, on which there is scarcely discernable a track of human footsteps. On the north-east the uninhabited waste extends to the Euphrates, the nearest point of which is 60 English miles distant. To the north and the west there is scarcely even a village of mud hovels within the same distance; and nothing, except two or three such miserable resting-places of the wild and roving Arabs, nearer than Aleppo, 180 miles to the north-west, or Damascus to the south-west, almost as far off. The nearest ports on the Mediterranean are Tripoli, Beirut, Sidon, and Tyre, all nearly due west, but none of them nearer than Aleppo. To the south again all is desert for many hundreds of miles.

The history of Palmyra is as singular and mysterious as its situation. We are told in the 9th chapter of the First Book of Kings, that "Solomon built Gezer, and Bethhoron the nether, and Baalath, and Tadmor in the wilderness." Tadmor is in all probability Palmyra. This is distinctly affirmed by Josephus. The two names also appear to be the same; for Tadmor is derived from a Hebrew root signifying a palm-tree, and Palmyra appears to have the same origin. We know that the city anciently stood in the midst of a grove of palms. But the strongest confirmation of the assertion of Josephus is found in the fact, that to this day Tadmor, or rather Thedmor, as they pronounce it, is the only name by which Palmyra is known among the Arabs. It is so called, and, as far as can be ascertained, has always been so called, by the tribe who claim possession of it, and who have taken up their abode among the ruins





ARCH AT PALMYRA.



RUINS—PALMYRA.



Solomon flourished a thousand years before the birth of Christ, and the foundations of Palmyra, therefore, if this supposition be correct, must have been laid more than 2800 years ago. Vestiges of the past still remain, which go to vindicate the claim of the city to this high antiquity. Besides the vast relics of an age of the most sumptuous architecture crowding the spot, there are in many places to be observed the ruins and rubbish of more ancient buildings, now for the most part forming merely ridges of shapeless hillocks covered with grass or sand. These are, perhaps, the foundations of the houses of old Tadmor, which a chronicler of the middle ages, probably on some authority which is now lost, affirms was sacked and overthrown by Nebuchadnezzar 400 years after it had been built by Solomon.

In course of time the city appears to have recovered from this disaster, and to have become again great and wealthy. It was probably built by Solomon to serve as an intermediate station for facilitating the intercourse between Judea and India; and, situated as it was, it no doubt owed its flourishing condition in after times to its Indian trade. Scarcely anything of its history, however, is known down to a comparatively recent period. It is first expressly mentioned as having, in the century before the birth of Christ, been plundered by Marc Antony, on the pretence that it had given aid to the Parthians, against whom he was then carrying on war. Its wealth, however, is stated to have been the real crime which drew upon it the observation of this needy, rapacious, and profligate soldier. But the booty he actually obtained was very trifling; for the inhabitants, having had timely notice of his intention, had contrived before his arrival to remove their treasures and most valuable effects beyond the Euphrates. From all this it would appear that although, from some inscriptions which remain, it may be conjectured that Palmyra had submitted to Alexander or his successors, it was now considered to be an independent city. Appian, who relates the transaction, expressly says that its inhabitants had acquired their riches by selling the merchandize of India and Arabia to the Romans.

After this we hear no more of Palmyra till towards the close of the third century of our era. It then ~~make~~ makes a conspicuous figure for a few years during the reigns of the Roman emperors Gallienus and Aurelian. We must refer the reader to Gibbon's eleventh chapter for the story of its famous queen, Zenobia, who, after attempting to resist the arms of Rome, and assuming the title of Empress of Palmyra and the East, was attacked in her capital by Aurelian, taken captive, brought home by her conqueror to Italy, and forced to walk in his triumphal procession. This catastrophe extinguished for ever the glory of the City of the Desert. Although it had made an obstinate defence, it was, on its surrender, treated with lenity by Aurelian; but he had not long set out on his return home, when the inhabitants rose upon the garrison he had left in the city, and put them all to death. The emperor had already crossed the Hellespont when he received this intelligence. "Without a moment's deliberation," says Gibbon, "he once more turned his face towards Syria. Antioch was alarmed by his rapid approach, and the helpless city of Palmyra felt the irresistible weight of his resentment. We have a letter of Aurelian himself, in which he acknowledges that old men, women, children, and peasants, had been involved in that dreadful execution which should have been confined to armed rebellion; and although his principal concern seems directed to the reëstablishment of a Temple of the Sun, he discovers some pity for the

remnant of the Palmyreans, to whom he grants the permission of rebuilding and inhabiting their city. But it is easier to destroy than to restore. The seat of commerce, of arts, and of Zenobia, gradually sunk into an obscure town, a trifling fortress, and at length a miserable village." A few years afterwards, the emperor Diocletian appears to have erected some buildings at Palmyra, the ruins of one of which, bearing the only Latin inscription in the place, are still standing. Justinian, also, in the sixth century, after it had been for some time quite deserted, repaired its walls, and placed a garrison in it; but not regaining its ancient trade, its only means of existence, its temples and columned porticoes were probably soon after left once more to the winds and the beasts of prey.

For more than a thousand years after the time of Justinian, the history of Palmyra is again nearly an utter blank. A Jewish writer, called Benjamin Tudelensis, says that he was there in 1172, and that he found the place inhabited by about two thousand of his countrymen. The Arabian geographer Abulfeda also mentions it in 1321, under the name of Tedmor. But in Europe its existence would seem to have been quite forgotten, till, in the year 1678, some English merchants of the factory at Aleppo received from the natives of the country such an account of the ruins as determined them to attempt a visit to the spot. They set out accordingly, on the 18th of July that year; but although they reached Palmyra, they deemed it prudent, from the threatening attitude of the Arabs, to return almost immediately, taking time to copy only one inscription. No second attempt was made till 1691, when some English residents at Aleppo again set out for the place on the 30th of September, and reached it after what the Rev. William Halifax, who was one of the party, calls "six days' easy travel." They remained for four days, "having," says one of them, whose journal of the expedition has been printed, "tired ourselves with roving from ruin to ruin, and rummaging among old stones, from which little knowledge could be obtained." This writer gives no further account of what he saw, his whole narrative being occupied with the events of the journey; but fortunately, some of his companions did not hold "old stones," and the knowledge to be derived from them, in such contempt. In the *Philosophical Transactions*, No. 217, being the publication for October, 1695, is given a letter of twenty-eight quarto pages, from Mr. Halifax, containing a very full description of the place; and in No. 218 are printed the journals of both expeditions, occupying thirty-two pages more. The discovery appears to have excited the highest degree of public curiosity. In the same number of the *Transactions* in which the journals appear, is a paper, by the learned astronomer Dr. E. Halley, on the *Ancient State of the City of Palmyra*, being an able attempt to elucidate its history from the inscriptions which the discoverers had brought away with them.

After this Palmyra was visited by Bruyn, Maundrel, and other oriental travelers; but the journey that has done most for the illustration of its antiquities, is that which was undertaken in 1751, by Messrs. Wood, Bouverie, and Dawkins, accompanied by the Italian draughtsman, Borra. The results of their investigations were published at London, in 1753, in a magnificent folio volume, bearing the title of "*Ruins of Palmyra, otherwise Tedmor*," and consisting principally of fifty-seven plates, finished in the highest style of art.

The travelers left the ship at Beirut, on the coast of Syria, and crossing



Mount Libanus to Damascus, proceeded thence to Hassia, a village four days' journey to the north, from the Aga of which, whose jurisdiction was found to include Palmyra, they received an escort of horse, under whose protection they pursued the remainder of their journey. They left Hassia on the 4th of March, and reached Palmyra on the 13th. Their approach to the ruins was from the south-west, through a sandy plain, about ten miles in breadth, and unenlivened by either tree or water. On both sides rose barren hills, forming the horizon. About two miles before reaching Palmyra, the hills seemed to join; and upon coming up, it was found that a narrow valley led to the city. Ancient and singularly fashioned sepulchres rose here and there on each hand, and occupying the hollow of the valley were the ruins of an aqueduct which had formerly conveyed water to Palmyra. Immediately after, the city itself burst upon their view. "We had scarcely passed these venerable monuments," says Mr. Wood, "when the hills opening, discovered to us all at once the greatest quantity of ruins we had ever seen, all of white marble; and beyond them, towards the Euphrates, a flat waste as far as the eye could reach, without any object that showed either life or motion. It is scarce possible to imagine anything more striking than this view: so great a number of Corinthian pillars, mixed with so little wall or solid building, afforded a most romantic variety of prospect."

The highest hills in the neighborhood of Palmyra are on the west and the north-west; but the city itself stands on ground somewhat elevated above the extensive plain which stretches around its other sides. In Mr. Wood's work is given a general view of the ruins from nearly the same point from which that in the *Philosophical Transactions* must have been taken, namely, from the north-east. The persons who visited the city in 1678 had found in the neighborhood "a garden full of palm-trees;" but Mr. Wood and his companions did not see a single palm remaining. The principal part of the ruins is enclosed by a wall, greatly decayed, and in some places barely traceable, being probably that erected by Justinian. Its circuit is about three English miles. On a height beyond it to the north-west is a tower, which is said to have been erected by an Arab chief about the end of the sixteenth century. On the lower grounds, in all directions, are seen the tombs mentioned above, which are tall square towers; such of them as have been explored containing mummies, exactly resembling those of Egypt, and being in general elaborately adorned in the interior, like the sepulchres in that country. Occupying a small space around the eastern extremity of the ruins, are some olive and corn fields, divided from each other by enclosures of mud. "Almost the whole ground within the walls," says Mr. Wood, "is covered with heaps of marble." The Arabs say that the ancient city extended far beyond the limits of the present walls, its circumference being fully ten miles. Wherever the ground is dug up within that space, the ruins of buildings, they assert, are found. The fame of the founder of Tadmor still flourishes among its ruins. "All these mighty things," said the Arabs to Mr. Wood, "Solomon ebn Doud (Solomon the son of David) did by the assistance of spirits."

The ruins extend from the south-east to the north-west in an unbroken line of nearly a mile and a half in length. At the eastern extremity stands the most magnificent building of the whole, that which is supposed to have been the Temple of the Sun. The enclosed court around the temple is a

square, each side of which is 660 feet in length, the great gate of entrance being to the west. It is within this court that the tribe of Arabs who occupy the place have erected their mud cottages, to the number of thirty or forty. To the west of the temple is a Turkish mosque, in ruins too, like the more ancient structures around it. A little way beyond this, in the same direction, is the stately arch, of which, as seen from the east, a representation is given. This is the entrance to a portico which extends in a north west direction for the amazing length of nearly 4,000 feet, till it terminates at the sepulchre. The columns of which it was formed, some entire and erect, others broken or prostrate, or both, are strewn over the whole of this long line. Among the other buildings is one which had been a Christian church. Another, a little to the west of that, consists of four immense columns, towering to a height far above everything around, and surmounted by an entablature of surpassing richness. The building, which appears from the inscription on it to have been erected by Diocletian, is near the north-western termination of the vast field of ruins.

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## BALBEC.

**N**EXT in renown to Palmyra, among the ruined cities of the ancient world, is Balbec, situated in the same region, the extraordinary fate of which has been, to be first the seat of luxury and magnificence almost unparalleled, and then, as if the curse of Heaven had fallen upon it, to be reduced to little better than a desolate wilderness. It is man, however, and not nature, that has wrought the change; no blight has made the soil or poisoned the air, but a degrading despotism has as effectually dried up the sources of social prosperity as if some elementary convulsion had suddenly turned the clime of beauty cold and dark, and struck the teeming earth with hopeless barrenness. Indeed, Turkish oppression has done what no unkindness of nature could have effected. The splendors of Palmyra rose under the breath of a free commerce in the midst of a sandy desert; but nothing has been able to preserve that and many other great cities from crumbling into heaps of ruins at the death-touch of the gloomy tyranny that now hangs like a pall over the land.

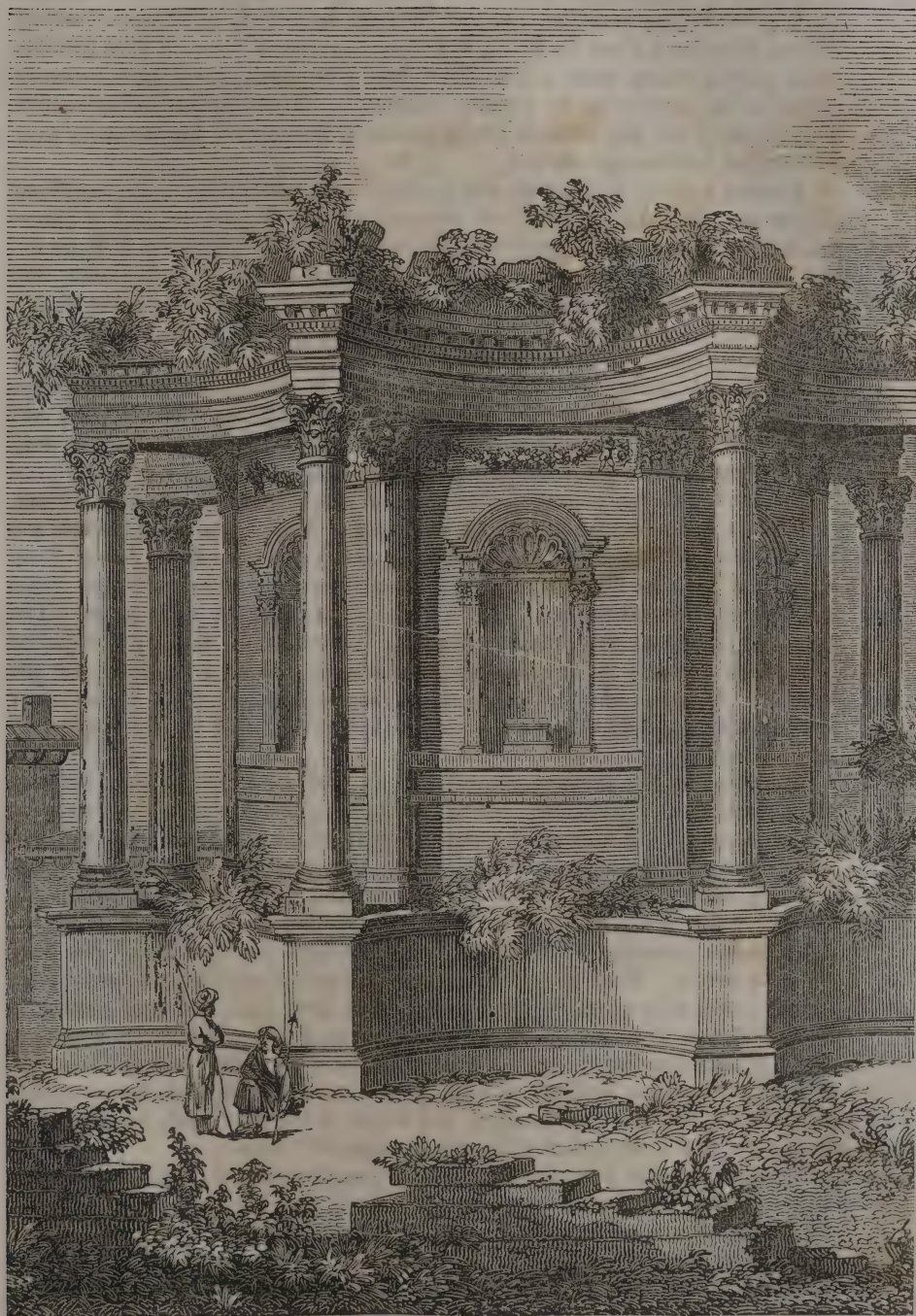
We are indebted for the most complete account of Balbec, as for that of Palmyra, to Mr. Wood and his friends, who, after visiting the two cities, gave to the public, in successive volumes, most accurate and splendid delineations of every thing they had seen in each, accompanied with historic notices and short descriptions. It was on their return from Palmyra that they proceeded to Balbec, which lies almost on a line drawn from the former city due west to the sea. It is, however, a little to the north of Palmyra. The spot in which it is placed is in one of the valleys of Mount Libanus (the Lebanon of Scripture,) now called the Plain of Bocat, a fertile and well-watered opening to the sea, which forms its south-western extremity, while Balbec stands immediately under the high ground which closes it in





RUINS—BALBEC





CIRCULAR TEMPLE AT BALBEC.



the opposite direction. Its breadth, from Mount Libanus to Mount Anti-Libanus, varies from four to two leagues.

Balbec is situated, as nearly as possible, half way between Damascus to the south-east and the port of Tripoli, in Syria, to the north-west. When Wood was there in 1751, the place contained about 5,000 inhabitants, among whom were a few Jews and Christians; but later accounts describe its population as greatly reduced. The collection of miserable huts which form the modern town, probably do not now harbor more than a thousand half-savage Arabs.

Ancient writers, in general, are as silent respecting Balbec as respecting Palmyra. But it is no doubt the same city which Macrobius, in his *Saturnalia*, mentions under the name of Heliopolis, and to which he tells us the worship of the sun was brought, in very remote times, from the other city of the same name in Egypt. Heliopolis in Greek means the City of the Sun; and the signification of the Syriac term Balbec is the Vale of Bal, the oriental name for the same luminary when worshipped as a god. It is probable that Balbec was the ancient, as it is the modern, name of the place, although, from not having been mentioned, like Tadmor, the old name of Palmyra, in the Hebrew Scriptures, it has come down to us only in the form of the Greek translation, Heliopolis.

The universal tradition of the country, Wood informs us, is, that Balbec, as well as Palmyra, was built by Solomon. Many stories, it seems, are told by the inhabitants, of the manner in which the celebrated Jewish king spent his time in this retreat. Some critics have supposed that some building at Balbec may possibly be that spoken of in his writings as "The Tower of Lebanon that looketh towards Damascus." One of the stories current on the spot is that the city was built by him as a residence for the Queen of Sheba. It is believed, of course, that in this, as in all his other similar undertakings, the wise monarch availed himself of the agency of genii or spirits.

The ruins of the ancient magnificence of Balbec do not present a crowd of fallen edifices, spread over a large extent of space, like those of Palmyra: they consist only of three distinct buildings, which stand not far from each other, in a plain at a short distance from the inhabited part of the town. The engraving presents a view of these buildings, with some others in the modern town, as seen from the south. To the left of the picture, or on the west, is the immense structure commonly called the Temple of the Sun, with its courts. More in the foreground is another smaller, but more entire temple; and at a considerable distance west from that, and still farther to the south, is a third temple, of a circular form, distinguishable by a modern spire, which has been erected over it, to convert it into a Greek church. A Doric column, a Turkish mosque, and some other modern erections, are seen interspersed. Surrounding the whole is the city wall, ten or twelve feet high, and defended at intervals by square towers.

The entry to the Temple of the Sun is from the east, through a noble portico of twelve circular columns; and the first apartment in which the visitor finds himself is a magnificent hexagonal (six-sided) hall, 180 feet in diameter, exhibiting on all sides the remains of an architectural beauty and magnificence of the richest character, in the columns and other ornaments of a circle of chambers which run around it. Beyond this is a still larger court of nearly a square form, being 374 feet in one direction by 368 in

another, and at the further extremity of that is the far-stretching pillared structure forming the proper temple. As may be observed from the view, nine of the lofty columns which had composed this part of the edifice are still to be seen standing together. There had been originally fifty-six in all, namely, ten at each end, and eighteen others along each side. The entire length of the space which they include is 285 feet, and its breadth 157. The height, including the plinth, is 87 feet. Nothing grander can be conceived than the aspect presented by this immense and richly ornamented temple, when seen in its full extent. No part of the structure is perhaps more wonderful than the terrace or soubassement by which the whole is surrounded, the stones composing which are in general 30 feet in length by 10 in breadth, and 13 in height. At the west end are three of the enormous length of 63 or 64 feet each. A freestone quarry still remains open, not far from the city wall, from which these colossal blocks appear to have been hewn, and where many of similar dimensions are to be seen cut from the rock, and left ready to be removed. From this and other circumstances, Mr. Wood concludes that the soubassement of the temple was never finished. One of the stones lying in the quarry, which is not quite detached, is even larger than any of those in the temple, measuring 70 feet in length by 14 in breadth, and  $14\frac{1}{2}$  in height. Its weight would be about 1135 tons.

The other temple, to the south of this, is, as we have mentioned, of smaller dimensions, but is still a large building, being 222 feet in length by  $114\frac{1}{2}$  in breadth. Its columns have been originally 34 in all, namely, 8 in front, and 13 along each of the sides. Their height, including the plinth, is  $76\frac{1}{2}$  feet; but the ground on which this temple stands is lower than the site of the other. The ornaments here are all likewise of the richest description. The Turks have built two great square towers on the ruins of the portico of this temple, but in other respects it is considerably less dilapidated than the former. In Wood's time, nearly all the pillars composing the peristyle, together with their entablature, were entire.

Our second engraving is a view of the circular temple, a small building of exquisite beauty. The building itself, exclusive of the pillars by which it is surrounded, is only 32 feet in diameter; and the height is divided into two parts, in the lower of which the architecture is Ionic, and in the higher, Corinthian. The lower has been at one time converted into a Greek church. The grace and lightness of the exterior of this edifice make it a perfect gem of art.

The buildings of Balbec are for the most part of the Corinthian order. John of Antioch states that the great temple was built by the Roman emperor Antoninus Pius, in the second century; and other circumstances would also lead to the conclusion that it is of this age.



## CALIFORNIA.

**C**ALIFORNIA was first discovered from the East, and strangely enough, about the year 1537, by a Spaniard named Alvaro Nuñez, surnamed Cabeza de Vaca, one of the three hundred Spaniards who, after having landed on the coast of Florida with Panfilo de Narvaez, escaped massacre. Cast into regions of country unknown to him, amid savage tribes, he wandered for many years across the region which was subsequently called by the French Louisiana, and reached ultimately the coast of Cubiacan, in Sonora, opposite the lower portion of Old California. While there he heard grand stories of the wealth of ulterior regions, and on his return told strange tales of the marvels he had seen, of the dangers he had undergone, and of the wealth of that till then unknown land. Far from doubting his veracity, every one thought that he did not tell all he had accomplished; and many went so far as to say that God had manifestly preserved him to save his companions, and to cure the Indians of the maladies which afflicted them. De Vaca did not contradict this idea, and assured his auditors that all California was strewn with pearls.

About the same time, another person also contributed to the marvelous. This was Marcos de Nizza, a missionary sent, at the request of Las Casas, to convert the Indians of Sonora, and who went far beyond the northern end of the coast of California. He gratified the imagination of the Spaniards, by a fantastic picture of the civilization of these countries, amid which, based on the stories but half understood of a few Indians, he placed the Cibola and seven other large cities, with houses of stone, two stories high, arabesque doors, and a king who used none but golden utensils. All this seemed long improbable, but it is now likely, from the fact of the ruins of the Rio Gila, recently surveyed and sketched by Major Emory, U. S. A., that the good father saw or ascertained from good authority all he described. The Maricopo Indians preserve to this day the following tradition of the origin of these strange ruins:

"In by-gone days, a woman of surpassing beauty resided in a green spot in the mountains, near the place where we were then encamped. All the men paid their court to her. She received the tributes of their devotion grain, skins, &c., but gave no love or other favor in return. Her virtue and her determination to remain unmarried were equally firm. There came drought which threatened the world with famine. In their distress, the people applied to her. She gave corn from her stock, and the supply seemed endless. Her goodness was unbounded. One day as she was lying asleep, with her body exposed, a drop of rain fell upon her stomach, which produced conception. A son was the issue, who was the founder of a new race, which built these houses."—*Emory's Report*, pp. 82, 83.

The above fable recalls the Hellenic myth of Danaë, Jupiter and the shower of gold.

The relation of Marcos Nizza had the effect of causing a new expedition to be sent out under Vasquez de Coronado, who, passing into the unknown

countries to the north-west of New Spain, added new fables to those already existing in relation to the country north and west of the Colorado and Gila. This expedition effected nothing but to give currency to the belief in the existence of a Mexican El Dorado, in the shape of the great kingdom of Tartarax and the city of Quivira, on the shores of Lake Tegnayo, now known as Utah Lake. The general belief, at the time, was that Coronado could not force his way amid a hostile population, and that though brave and ambitious, he was anxious to return to a young, beautiful and rich wife he had recently married. The less a country is known, the more easily is confidence placed in its mineral resources; and the Spaniards were as willing to believe in fables of miraculous wealth of California, as we are. They had, however, nothing on which to base their opinion; while, in our own time, we have an absolute certainty.

The exaggeration of the Spanish conquerors and monks yet adheres to Mexico, so that a few miserable huts frequently were called a city, and a cross on a mountain or in a valley was known as a mission. Thus it continues with California, where a population of twenty thousand is strewn over a country more extended than Great Britain, and where the names of cities, named after every saint in the calendar, but without population, perpetually recur.

Long before the over-land discovery of California, many voyages had been made in the Pacific, and as early as 1541, just fifty years after the discovery of America, Ulloa, in an expedition undertaken by order of Cortez, had ascertained California to be a portion of the continent, for as such it is depicted by the pilot Castillo, in the chart he constructed in Mexico at that time. In spite of this, as late as the day of Charles II. of Spain, California was frequently marked and called the *islas Carolinas*. After having been visited, from time to time, by the pearl fishermen from Xalisco, Acapulco, and Chacola, Sebastian Viscaino took formal possession of it in 1596. About forty-six years after, the Jesuits established themselves there, and formed some establishments—first in Lower California, but which gradually were extended beyond the Peninsula. They had to contend for a time with the Brothers of Saint Francis, who had long sought to introduce themselves among the Indians. The Jesuits were brought into contact with the most stupid of all the American tribes, who were as ferocious as beasts, and incapable of understanding the obligation of a benefit. For a long time they were unprotected by military posts and suffered greatly. Their circumstances, however, at last changed, as their services became known and appreciated, and not only the spiritual government of California was confided to them, but it was ordered by the highest authority, that all military men, even the commandant of the post at Loretto, should obey the orders of the Father President.

Between 1697 and 1721, three Jesuits, Ugarte, Salvatierra, and Kuhn, made detailed examinations of the Californian Sea and Gulf. Then only was it known in Europe that Castillo's chart was correct. The monks were the true conquerors of California, subjecting it to the Romish faith. Their establishments, in both the Californias, continued in full vigor until 1760. Their progress had been great, for they were masters of sixteen chief missions, dependent on which were more than forty villages. The Jesuits, in all their acts in California, displayed such apostolic zeal, that much of the wrong alleged to have been done by them there, may on that



account be forgiven them. Fanaticism was not their guide, for they came to California with curiosities to amuse the attention of the Indians, and succeeded in inducing them to lay aside the hatred a series of wrongs had taught them to attach to the very name of Spaniard. After the expulsion of the order of Jesus from the dominions of Spain, in 1767, the guidance of California was confided to the Franciscans and the monks of Saint Dominic of Mexico; and the prosperity the more intelligent companions of Saint Ignatius had created soon began to decay.

The reason of the great improvement of the Indians of California, while all the other tribes of Mexico were degenerating, is obvious enough. The object of the *real audiencia de las Indias*, the representative of Spain and the king, was to make slaves of the Americans. The Pope was never the head of the Mexican Church, which depended upon the king alone; consequently priests, soldiers and civilians all pandered to his power. California, however, while under the control of the order of Loyola, was exempted from its influence. The clergy were priests indeed, and toiled for their cures as faithfully as ever man toiled in such a cause. Therefore California under their charge improved, and under the Dominicans became as degraded as any portion of Mexico.

This is not the place to go fully into a recital of that series of atrocities, on both sides, which separated Mexico from the Spanish crown. The part which California played was too insignificant to be recorded in the general history of the world, and is now almost forgotten. At the time of the Mexican Revolution, the Governor of California was a native of the province named Arguello. Nothing recorded in history has ever equaled the contempt with which the Spaniards always treated even those of their own country who were creoles, or born in Mexico. Animated by this feeling, a Spanish officer, named Noniga, opposed Arguello, who, to silence this opposition, most imprudently placed Noniga in command of a presidio at Santa Barbara, from which, for misconduct, he was almost immediately dismissed, and attempted to excite the Mexicans against the Californians, and to impress them with his own feelings. The evil of this course was soon apparent, and the Government set about correcting this state of affairs immediately. They immediately consulted the Dominican friars, who had succeeded the Jesuits, and offered all who remained the choice of Northern or Southern California. The old priests went south of San Miguel, while the missions north of that post were confided to younger monks from the college of Zacatecas. This made matters worse, for the new monks, far the inferiors in all respects of the older friars, proved totally unfit for their position.

The only other portion of the history of California which should detain us, until we come to the conquest of that country by the United States, is the circumstance of the seizure of Monterey, in 1842, by Commodore Thomas Ap Catesby Jones, of the navy of the U. S. That officer, while cruising off the coast of Peru, was informed that the British Government had negotiated a treaty with Santa Anna for the transfer of California, and that an English fleet was about to sail from the Sandwich Islands for Monterey, to make the sale effective. Commodore Jones, under the circumstances, thought himself justified in seizing on Monterey, so that any instructions which may have been sent to the English Admiral, Lord George Paulet, proved abortive. The treaty, in fact, if meditated, was

never negotiated, and Monterey was returned to the Mexican authorities.

Immediately after the commencement of the war between the United States of the North and of Mexico became certain, and probably before, the Government at Washington issued orders to the naval commander in the Pacific, John D. Sloat, Esq., to occupy as much of California as he could, in case of a declaration of war. On May 13th, 1846, war having begun, Commodore Sloat was ordered to establish a blockade, and on May 16th, 1846, Mr. Bancroft, Secretary of the Navy, wrote him a letter containing the following passages :

"You will consider the most important public object to be, to take and to hold possession of San Francisco; and this you will do without fail.

"You will also take possession of Mazatlan and Monterey, one or both, as your force will permit.

"If information received here is correct, you can establish friendly relations between your squadron and the inhabitants of each of these three places.

"A connection between California, and even Sonora, and the present government of Mexico is supposed scarcely to exist. You will, as opportunity offers, conciliate the confidence of the people in California, and also in Sonora, toward the government of the United States; and you will endeavor to render their relations with the United States as intimate and as friendly as possible."

On June 3d, 1846, Col. S. W. Kearney, 1st dragoons, was ordered to take possession of New Mexico and Upper California; orders which he executed by one of the most masterly marches on record. These orders were the commencement of the official connection of the United States with California, although six years before, the country had been surveyed and topographically delineated, by the orders of the President of the U. S. to the Exploring Expedition commanded by Lieut. Wilkes, U. S. N.

Castro was then commandant of the country, and Pico governor. The former commenced a series of measures offensive to the foreigners, which led to a difficulty between him and Fremont, who was then busy in making some surveys in that country, being connected with the U. S. topographical engineers. A party of Americans seized and held Sonoma. Castro published a proclamation, calling on the people to defend themselves and their country, but promising protection to all foreigners who were peaceful. A person who was then in California thus describes what followed the outbreak :

"Fremont went to the Sacramento to arouse the American settlers; but scarcely had he arrived there, when an express reached him from the garrison of Sonoma, with information that Castro's whole force was crossing the bay to attack that place. This intelligence was received in the afternoon of the 23d of June, while he was on the American fork of the Sacramento, eighty miles from the little garrison at Sonoma; and at two o'clock on the morning of the 25th, he arrived at that place with ninety riflemen from the American settlers in that valley. The enemy had not yet appeared. Scouts were sent out to reconnoitre, and a party of twenty fell in with a squadron of seventy dragoons (all of Castro's force which had crossed the bay), attacked and defeated it, killing and wounding five, with-



out harm to themselves; the Mexican commander, De la Torre, barely escaping with the loss of his transport boats, and nine pieces of brass artillery, spiked.

"The country north of the bay of San Francisco being cleared of the enemy, Lieut. Col. Fremont returned to Sonoma on the evening of the 4th of July, and, on the morning of the 5th, called the people together, explained to them the condition of things in the province, and recommended an immediate declaration of independence. The declaration was made, and he was selected to take the chief direction of affairs. The attack on Castro was the next object. He was at Santa Clara, an intrenched post on the upper or south side of the Bay of San Francisco, with 400 men and two pieces of field artillery. A circuit of more than one hundred miles must be traversed to reach him. On the 6th of July the pursuit was commenced, by a body of 160 mounted riflemen, commanded by Col. Fremont in person, who, in three days, arrived at the American settlements on the Rio de los Americanos. Here he learnt that Castro had abandoned Santa Clara, and was retreating south, toward Ciudad de los Angeles, the seat of the governor-general of the Californias, and distant 400 miles. It was instantly resolved on to pursue him to that place. At the moment of departure, the gratifying intelligence was received that war with Mexico had commenced; that Monterey had been taken by our naval forces, and the flag of the United States there raised on the 7th of July; and that the fleet would coöperate with the army against Castro and his forces. The flag of independence was hauled down, and that of the United States hoisted amid the hearty greetings and to the great joy of the American settlers and forces under the command of Lieut. Col. Fremont.

"The combined pursuit was rapidly continued; and on the 12th of August, Commodore Stockton and Lieut. Col. Fremont, with a detachment of marines from the squadron and some riflemen, entered the City of the Angels without resistance or objection; the governor-general Pico, the commandant-general Castro, and all of the Mexican authorities, having fled and dispersed. Commodore Stockton took possession of the whole country as a conquest of the United States, and appointed Lieutenant-colonel Fremont governor, under the law of nations; to assume the functions of that office when he should return to the squadron."

The details of the revolt, the circumstances of Lieut. Col. Fremont (he had been promoted from a first lieutenancy of a semi-military corps to a lieutenant-colonelcy of the cavalry,) or of his bloodless capture of Pico at Wilson's rancho, do not greatly interest us here. It will not either be important to refer particularly to the pardon of Pico, who had been condemned to be shot by a court-martial of officers without commissions, or to dwell upon the entry into the Pueblo de los Angeles, on the 13th of January, 1847. At that place he found General Kearny and Commodore Stockton.

General Kearny left Santa Fe in September, 1846, with 100 mounted dragoons, and attacked and defeated a party of 160 Californians on the 6th of December, near San Pasqual, reached San Diego on the 12th, and and on the 29th left that place with 500 men, and dispersed a body of 600 of the enemy on the plains of the Mesa on the 8th and 9th of January, and on the 10th entered the Pueblo de los Angeles, where he was joined on the 13th by Col. Fremont.

Commodore Dallas having come to the coast of California, Commodore Stockton returned to the United States, and General Kearny assumed the power from which he had been kept by force. He subsequently pacified the whole country, in fact and in name, brought Col. Fremont to the United States, arrested him, and arraigned him before a court-martial. All that followed is a part of the history of the army, not of California. General Kearny subsequently served in Mexico, and on the conclusion of peace returned home, where he sickened and died. The gold mines of California will ever be esteemed a monument of his skill and prudence, for but for him they might have been lost to the nation.

The rich gold diggings of California were discovered in 1848 by mere accident. There is no doubt but in the early settlement of the country, the fact that the soil contained gold was well known to the Jesuits, but they supposed the quantities were so small it would never be profitable to search for it. The manner of its recent discovery was as follows:

Capt. Sutter is a native of Switzerland, and held a commission in the Swiss guards of Charles X. Disbanded in consequence of the Revolution of 1830, he emigrated to Western Missouri, and remained there until 1838 or '39, when he obtained from the Mexican Government a grant of land in California, upon which he immediately established himself. At first he had much difficulty with the Indians, but by conciliating their chiefs, and many acts of well-timed decision, he acquired over them perfect control. Col. Fremont, in his report, speaks of his works, all of which have been built chiefly by Indian labor, as in good order and condition. On application to the chief of a village, he obtained as many boys and girls as he would employ; and there were at that time a number in training for a woolen factory. He bought out the stock of a Russian establishment, the owners of which wished to leave the country, consisting of a large number of cattle, artillery, &c., and made payment for them annually in grain. His fort mounted twelve cannon, and held 1000 men, but was garrisoned with forty Indians in uniform. It is a quadrangular work, built of adobe or unburned brick. The whites in his employment are American, French, and German, all of whom are mechanics, and are provided within the works with shops, tools, and work. Around Capt. Sutter other persons have settled, on the Rio de los Americanos—all of whom, following his example, are thriving and prosperous. Previous to the war, Capt. Sutter's wealth consisted of cattle and the proceeds of his vast crops; but, by a lucky accident, he has become inseparably connected with the mineral, as he was with the agricultural prosperity of California.

Captain Sutter, feeling the great want of lumber, contracted in September, 1847, with a Mr. Marshall to build a saw-mill at that place. It was erected in the course of the following winter and spring, and a dam and race constructed; but when the water was let on the wheel, the tail-race was found to be too narrow to permit the water to escape with sufficient rapidity. Mr. Marshall, to save labor, let the water directly into the race with a strong current, so as to wash it wider and deeper. He effected his purpose, and a large bed of mud and gravel was carried to the foot of the race. One day Mr. Marshall, as he was walking down the race to this deposit of mud, observed some glittering particles at its upper edge; he gathered a few, examined them, and became satisfied of their value. He then went to the fort, told Capt. Sutter of his discovery, and they agreed



to keep it secret until a certain grist-mill of Sutter's was finished. It however got out and spread like magic. This led to a general search for it, and it was soon discovered in various portions of the country in great abundance.

No country in the world exhibits so great a diversity of soil, climate and fertility as California; and, strangely enough, the best, loveliest, and most inviting portion of the country is not upon the sea-coast, which, from the southern boundary to Cape Mendocino, in latitude  $40^{\circ}$ , is occupied by a high, broken ridge, reaching twenty miles into the interior. Between this range and a loftier one, known as the Sierra, is the valley of San Juan. Eastward of the Sierra is another broad valley, through which runs the river Sacramento, reaching as far as Monte San Bernardino, between which and the Sacramento it is known as the Buena Ventura. Farther back, towards the great Cordillera, is a continuation of the Cascade Range of Oregon, the summits of which are capped with perpetual snow. West of these are the great sandy plains, where no one but an Indian could exist. The lower portion of this country is extremely hot and dry, with the exception of a portion of the winter. As the distance from the equator however increases, the wet season is prolonged; so that at San Francisco it lasts from November to April, while during the rest of the year fogs and heavy dews keep the earth moist. Snow and ice are sometimes seen on the shores of the Bay of San Francisco, but never at a lower latitude, except indeed on the summits of the mountains. The rains are never heavy, and it sometimes chances that two years pass without rain. One would think, under such circumstances, the whole surface of the country would become parched and dried up. This, however, is not the case; for the numerous mountain streams and daily visit of the sea-breeze from the low temperature of the sea, always charged with vapor, suffice to sustain a peculiar vegetation, prolific in rare and beautiful plants, which the magnificent herds of California prove to be most nutritious. There must still, however, be great sufferings at these seasons. Only the country around San Francisco, and that near Monte San Bernardino, seem capable of sustaining a large agricultural population; but this is of small importance, as its immense commercial advantages must make it mistress of all the Pacific coast.

In 1825, Don Jose Echandia, a Mexican, succeeded Arguello, and governed prosperously until 1829, when the garrison of Monterey revolted, in consequence of not being paid with punctuality. The revolt was, however, put down by Echandia, who continued in power until 1831, when Don Manuel Victoria succeeded him. This officer by his tyrannical conduct produced a revolt, and in the first year of power was so severely wounded as to be incapable of discharging his functions. This insurrection became formidable from the fact that the Californians were aided by many foreigners, who on this occasion appear for the first time in the history of California. General Figuerra was the next governor, and his administration is still spoken of as the best and most humane the country had known between the revolution in 1822 and the advent of Gen. Kearny. He asked the Central Government to send him out two hundred artificers. Instead of that, two hundred *picarones* and *leperos* were sent to him from Mexico, who exerted as great an influence for evil as the old Jesuits had for good, and greatly corrupted the morals of the people, which hitherto had continued

strangely pure. Gen. Figuerra died in 1835, greatly regretted by the people, and a true loss to California.

Col. Chico came next, a perfect contrast to his predecessor; and having involved himself in a dispute with the Judge of the district, he was forced to resign, and delivered over his authority to Don Nicolas Gutierrez, a lieutenant-colonel, who restored order completely. It may here be remarked, California had gradually decreased in importance, a fact to be inferred from the circumstance that the rank of the last two governors had each time been one grade less than that of their predecessor.

For some time past many foreigners had been gradually forming a colony in California. The majority of these were natives of the United States and trappers of the Rocky Mountains and the head-waters of the Columbia river. The peculiarly irritable disposition of these men made them always ready for excitement, and they participated largely in the troubles, opposing the new Governor. They were in favor of declaring California independent of Mexico, which evidently was unable to govern it. The Californians were a very ignorant people, and were easily persuaded by these men and many other aspirants for office, among whom was the Administrador of the Customs, and a lawyer of bad character named Penné, both of whom were Mexicans and members of the ultra-liberal or Yorkino faction. Alvarado, the Inspector of Customs, also joined them, and this trio sought to monopolize all office—at the same time they exhibited much distrust of the foreigners. The crisis came early in November, 1836, when the governor attempted to arrest Alvarado in consequence of some difficulty. The standard of revolt was raised at San Juan, whither Alvarado, had fled, and the influence of the priesthood not being exerted, the foreign party swept all before it. California was declared independent, and all foreigners who had borne arms, or assisted in the contest, were admitted to citizenship. On the 2d of November, at the instance of the foreigners, Alvarado at the head of two hundred men, entered Monterey, and immediately invested the Presidio in which the Mexican party and Gutierrez were shut up. Twenty-five of Alvarado's men were American hunters, and Alvarado having obtained possession of some ship-guns from several American and English merchantmen in the harbor, on the 5th the Presidio was surrendered, under a promise that Gutierrez' life and that of his men and officers should be spared, and they, if they wished it, not be sent out of the country. At this time, however, the courage of Alvarado failed, and he refused, on striking the Mexican colors, to hoist the new colors of California, which had been prepared. The consequence was, that California adhered to the Mexican union, simply pronouncing against Centralism. Alvarado was appointed governor, Vallejo commandant-general, Castro commandant of the militia, and Penné secretary of state. The foreigners were appeased by an act removing half the duties.

Contrary to stipulation it was determined to send the Mexicans out of the country, which was immediately done by means of the English merchant-brig *Clementine*. The governor then communicated what had occurred to the Central Government, and having received a supply of arms and money, though deserted by the American hunters, was able to extend his power over all the other presidios.

Thus things continued till 1840, when it appeared that the customs not producing a sufficient income, new imposts were levied on the foreigners,



who became dissatisfied. Alvarado at once determined to expel them from the country. To accomplish this a worthless Englishman named Gardner, was suborned to swear that a general plot had been formed by all foreigners to murder the governor and seize California, under the guidance of an American, named Graham, a hunter who lived at Nativetes. To arrest him, Castro was sent with an armed party, and succeeded in arresting him. Having done so, they committed many atrocities, having deliberately held down and cut the tendons of the legs of a man named Shard, who lived with him, and left him to die. In arresting Graham, they shot him while asleep, and then hurried him to Monterey, about twenty miles distant, where he was thrown into a dungeon, even more loathsome than Spanish and Mexican prisons usually are, and was put in heavy irons. More than sixty other foreigners were arrested at the same time in all parts of the country, and sent to San Blas in a vessel called the Guipiscoa. From San Blas they were marched in two days to Tepic, a port sixty miles distant. All the Englishmen there were protected by their consuls, returned to Monterey, and regained their property. This was not the case with the Americans, who obtained no remuneration. Graham only returned a broken-hearted man, and regained but a fragment of his fortune, which had consisted of five thousand dollars in specie, and three times that value in cattle. This alone might have been regarded as sufficient cause for the Mexican war, though Mr. Polk, in all probability, was not aware of the circumstance at the time of its commencement.

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## COLOGNE.

**C**OLOGNE, called by the Germans Cöln, is situated in a district of the same name, which is one of the two divisions of the Prussian province of Jülich-Cleve-berg, so called from its containing the three old duchies of Jülich, or Juliers, Cleve, and Berg. Cologne is the capital of the whole province, and stands on the left or west bank of the Rhine, forming a kind of semicircle. The city is fortified, and with its numerous spires and large buildings, makes a good show from the opposite side of the river. It is about one hundred and seven miles east by north from Brussels. Cologne was an old Roman station, often mentioned in Tacitus, and took its name of Colonia Claudia Agrippinensis, or "the colony of Claudius and Agrippina," from Agrippina the daughter of Germanicus Cæsar, who was some time in these parts at the head of the Roman army. Agrippina, at the time when her name was given to the colony, was the fourth wife of her uncle, the feeble and worthless Emperor Claudius; and was born at this place while her illustrious father commanded in Germany. The Roman word "*colonia*," *colony*, has been corrupted by the French into Cologne, and by the Germans into Cöln.

Under the Germanic Empire, Cologne was a free Imperial city, and had both a seat and voice, as well in the Diets or Assemblies of Westphalia as in those of the Empire. At this time the Elector of Cologne occasionally resided here, as well as the Chapter of the Archbishop of Cologne, and a



CHURCH OF ST. MARTIN—COLOGNE.



Nuncio of the Pope. Urban VII. established a university here in 1388, to which succeeding popes granted privileges. It is still the seat of a Catholic Archbishopric, but the university as such no longer exists.

Cologne cannot, on the whole, be called a handsome city, its streets being crooked, narrow and dirty; but it has a great number of public buildings, and among them thirty-three churches and chapels. The cathedral is a noble building, 400 feet long and 180 wide, which, owing to its magnitude, is a conspicuous object from a distance, overtopping every other edifice in the city. The body of the cathedral is supported by 100 pillars. Two high towers were designed for this building, one of which is raised to only about half the height intended, and the other is hardly begun. Were the cathedral completed, it is generally allowed it would be one of the finest Gothic buildings in Europe. Behind the high altar is the chapel of the three holy kings, or three wise men, as they are sometimes called, made of marble. The shrine which contains the bodies is remarkable for the curious and elaborate ornaments with which it is decorated. The names of the three wise men, according to some accounts, are Gaspar, Melchior, and Balthasar, whose bones, as the story goes, were first taken to Constantinople by the Emperor Constantine's mother; thence they were transferred to Milan; and finally obtained a sumptuous mausoleum in Cologne. What the precise merits of Gaspar, Melchior, and Balthasar were, we have not been able to make out satisfactorily. The parish church of St. Peter contains the Crucifixion of the Apostle, one of Rubens' finest pictures, which he gave as a present to the church in which he received the rite of baptism. This distinguished painter was a native of Cologne. The picture traveled to Paris during the time when the French were so busy in appropriating to themselves all the valuable works of this kind which they could lay their hands on. After the downfall of Bonaparte it returned home.

In the church of St. Ursula we see the tomb of this holy virgin; and, as the legend would have us believe, the bones of her 11,000 virgin companions and martyrs. The church does, in fact, contain an immense number of bones; and in a certain chamber, some accounts say, there are, or were, several thousand skulls, arranged in good order, and adorned with garlands and coronets. The fact of the bones being there seems undoubted—the proof of their belonging to the holy virgins does not seem quite so clear.

Besides these, there are many other handsome churches in Cologne, one of which, the church of St. Martin, is represented in the engraving. This view is given, not so much for the beauty of the church, as to exhibit the general style of architecture in this old city.

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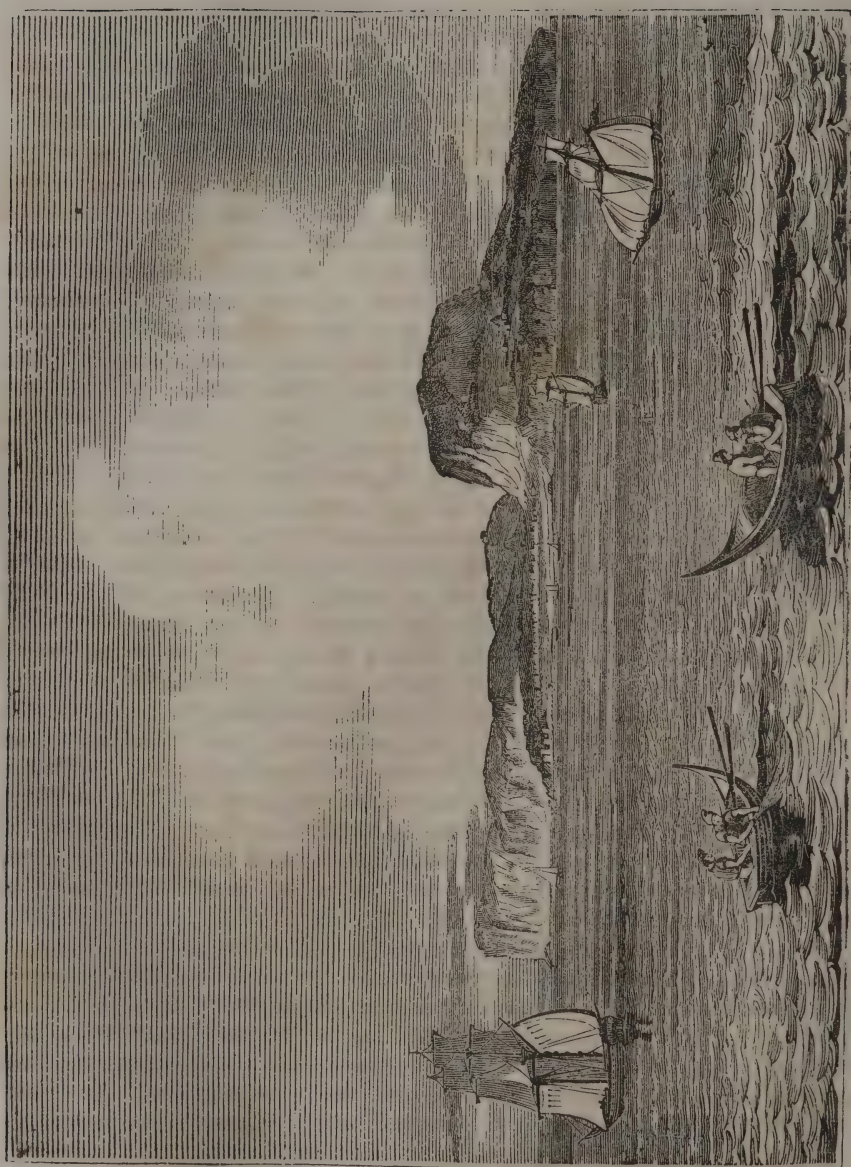
## THE ISLAND OF CAPRI.

**T**HIS most picturesque of islands is situated under the same meridian as the city of Naples, which it immediately faces, and from almost every part of which it is constantly visible. It is, indeed, one of the finest and most striking features of the rich and varied scenery which

surrounds that capital. It stands at the entrance of the Neapolitan Gulf, almost on the line of the horizon; it is distant about two miles and a half from Cape Campanella, which terminates the bold promontory where Sorrento, Amalfi, and other towns of old fame, are situated; it is about twelve miles from Cape Miseno on the other side of the bay, and rather more than twenty from the city of Naples at the end of the bay. It is composed of hard, calcareous rocks, which are disposed in two picturesque masses with a considerable break or hollow between them. The highest of these two masses, which is to the west, and is called Anacapri, rises between sixteen and seventeen hundred feet above the level of the sea. The whole of the island, when seen at a little distance, looks so precipitous and inaccessible, that the stranger is disposed to wonder how the little towns and white villages he sees on the face of its cliffs ever got there. The color of the masses of rock, when not affected by the glow of sunset, is a pale, sober gray. Tracing all the indents and sinuosities of the rocks, the circumference of the island does not exceed nine miles: yet within this narrow space is crowded an astonishing variety of scenic beauties, remains of antiquity, and historical recollections. The entire surface of Capri is wild, broken, and picturesque. The ancient name of the island was *Capreae*, and it is said it was so called from being inhabited by wild goats. According to antiquaries, its first human inhabitants were a colony of Greeks from *Epîrus*, who, after many ages, were dispossessed by the citizens of *Neapolis* (Naples), which then formed part of *Magna Græcia*, and which, like all the places of note in that portion of Italy, owed its origin to the Greeks. The Roman Emperor Augustus seems to have taken entire possession of the island for himself, and to have given the Neapolitan citizens lands in the neighboring island of *Ischia* as an equivalent. Suetonius, the historian, has recorded a visit to Capri made by Augustus at the close of his life. With a shattered constitution and broken spirits, the world's master left Rome to find a place of quiet rest. Having recruited his spirits a little at *Astura*, on the shores of the *Tyrrhenian* sea, and near the mouth of the *Tybur*, he coasted *Campania Felix*, and, with a few chosen friends, arrived at *Baia*—the *Brighton* and *Cheltenham* united of ancient Rome. At *Baia* he took shipping for *Capreae*. As his galley shot across the *Puteolian* bay, it was met by a trading vessel from *Alexandria* in *Egypt*, the crew of which, aware of the monarch's approach, had dressed themselves in white, and crowned their heads with chaplets; and, when he was still nearer to them, they burned incense before him, swearing to live for him, and for him to navigate the seas. These testimonials of affection, or this adulation, cheered for a moment the dying emperor. He distributed money among his followers, desiring them to spend it in purchasing the *Alexandrian* merchandize. At Capri, Augustus, determining to forget the cares of government, gave up his whole soul to ease and affable intercourse; but this secession from toil, and the enjoyment of the tranquillity and the balmy atmosphere of the place, and the magical scenery around him, could not restore the old and worn-out man, who died shortly after at the town of *Nola* in *Campania*, and almost within sight of the Island.

Capri is, however, much more memorable as being the constant retreat for several years of Augustus' successor, the execrable *Tiberius*. For the honor of human nature, it is to be hoped that those who have described the life and impurities of this systematic tyrant and debauchee have in some





ISLAND OF CAPRI.



CAVERN OF AZURIA.



instances sacrificed truth to eloquence and effect; but still enough will remain to excite our abhorrence, and our regret that his name should be associated with so beautiful a spot of earth. Shut up with the infamous ministers of his tyranny and lust in this rocky, inaccessible island, Tiberius ruled the vast Roman empire. It was here he committed or ordered to be committed some of the most atrocious of his cruelties; it was here he wrote the "verbose and grand Epistle" to the Senate at Rome, immortalized in its infamy by Juvenal; it was here the arbiter of the fate of millions trembled in his old age at what might be his own destiny, and sat on "the august rock of Capreæ with a Chaldean band"—a band of astrologers and impostors—to consult the stars. He here built twelve palaces or villas, which were all strongly fortified, and erected many other works, the ruins of which still bear his name. The poor islanders of the present day, indeed, attribute every ancient building or fragment found on the island to "Tiberio Cesare," whom they amusingly call "Emperor of Capri and King of Rome." It is also very amusing to hear how they talk traditionally of the tyrant, and of the deeds and vices recorded by Tacitus, Suetonius, and Juvenal.

The sail from Naples to Capri on a fine summer evening, when favored by the *vento di terra*, or land breeze from the main, is one of the most delightful that can be imagined. The only accessible point in the island is called the Sbarco di Capri, or the landing-place. This is below the town of Capri, to which there is an ascent by means of a rude Cyclopean flight of steps, steep and rugged in the extreme. A few fortifications might render the island altogether inaccessible to an enemy, and entitle Capri to the name that was commonly given to it during the last war, viz. the Little Gibraltar. During a certain part of that long struggle, when the French arms had driven the king of the two Sicilies from Naples to Sicily, the English held the island for that sovereign. They kept possession of it during the whole of the short reign at Naples of Joseph Bonaparte; but when he went to Spain, and Murat replaced him in Italy, it was attacked with an imposing force, and, being most absurdly defended, it fell into the hands of the French.

The principal town, or, as it is pompously called, the "metropolis of Capri," stands on a shelving rock towards the east of the island. It consists of a group of some two or three hundred small but tolerably neat houses, five or six churches and chapels, with a confined piazza, or square, in the midst. It is surrounded by vineyards and orchards, and some small olive groves stand on ledges of the cliffs above it. There is only one more town in the island. This is called Anacapri, and is situated high up, on a narrow ledge of the western mass of rock that goes by the same name. The fishermen, sailors, and traders live in the chief town, and the lower parts of the island and Anacapri are almost solely inhabited by frugal, industrious peasants. It is one of the cleanest places that eye can behold. Its inhabitants communicate with the other town and all the east of the island by means of a flight of 538 steps which zigzag in a curious manner down the face of a precipice. On a still loftier precipice, in the rear of the town of Anacapri, are the picturesque ruins of a castle of the middle ages.

The villages, if groups of three or four vine-dressers' houses may be so called, are nestled here and there in little hollows, or are perched on

steps in the cliffs, chiefly on the eastern half of the island. Wherever it has been possible to make them grow, they are surrounded by trees and vineyards. The persevering industry of the islanders is very admirable: by hewing out rocks here—by piling them up to form terraces and retain the scanty soil there; by removing the earth from places where it was exposed to be washed away, and depositing it in well defended, secure places, they have covered considerable patches of the northern front of Capri with beauty and fertility. The back of the island is so precipitous that it is altogether impracticable. The cultivable parts produce most kinds of vegetables and fruits, a small quantity of excellent oil, and wine in abundance. The wine, which is well known to all who have resided at Naples, is of two sorts—Capri rosso and Capri bianco, or red and white Capri. The quality of both is very good, being devoid of that volcanic, sulphurous flavor common to most of the wines produced near Naples.

Quails form another important article of export. These birds of passage, which come in countless flights from the coast of Africa in the spring, and return thitherward in autumn, are caught on the island in large nets spread out in hollows on the tops of the rocks, through which, season after season, the quails are sure to pass. In some years, as many as 100,000 of these delicate birds, without counting those consumed at home, have been sent to the Neapolitan market. Capri, which is now united to the see of Sorrento, once had a bishop of its own; and, in former days, that dignitary's revenue was derived almost entirely from the trade in quails.

In 1826 the whole population of the island amounted to about 4,000 souls. There were two or three schools established by government. The people seemed very healthy, contented, and cheerful; free and equal in their intercourse with one another; and, like most islanders, much attached to the place of their birth. None of them could be called rich, even according to the low scale of that part of the world, but then very few were abjectly poor. Like the inhabitants of the contiguous peninsula, the Sorrentini, the Amalfitani, &c., the people of Capri invariably leave an agreeable recollection in the mind of the traveler.

The bold, perpendicular cliff at the eastern extremity of the island, which is correctly represented in our engraving, is the too celebrated *Saltus Caprearum*, over which, if history speaks truly, Tiberius was accustomed to have his tortured victims driven. The cliff still retains its name, Italianized, the islanders always calling it "*Il Salto*," or the leap. It rises seven hundred feet above the level of the sea. Not far from the brow of this cliff are very considerable remains of the *Villa Jovis*, one of the tyrant's twelve mansions, which all stood on this half of the island. The guides assure the stranger that some arched subterranean chambers, communicating with one another, that are found here, were the *torturing dungeons* of Tiberius. A fine mosaic pavement, some columns of *giallo antico*, a Greek statue of a nymph, with many cameos and intaglios, were found at the *Villa Jovis* many years since. Indeed, this small island and these Tiberian villas, of which we need not give a minute description, as little remains of them but sub-structures and dismal cells, have contributed largely to modern museums, churches, and palaces. The four magnificent columns of *giallo antico*—and all of one piece—that now decorate the chapel of the King of Naples in the palace of Caserta were dug up in one of the villas. A splendid mosaic, which Murat's wife, Caroline Bonaparte, caused to be



removed and laid down as a flooring to her own boudoir in the palace at Portici, was found in another; and each of the villas, from amidst their crumbling ruins, have furnished rosso, giallo, and verde antico—lapis lazuli, other beautiful stones, and a peculiar sort of marble called Tiberian, in wonderful profusion. Statues and busts in marble and bronze, and of exquisite workmanship—medals and bassi-relevi, and other objects of art, have also been found and carried away in great quantities during the course of centuries. The mosaics and Corinthian capitals of the Tiberian villas are especially considered as models of perfection of their kinds. All these twelve magnificent villas were included in a space, the circumference of which does not exceed four miles. The wealth of the emperor was employed for years in erecting and adorning them.

A low-pitched and narrow aperture in the rocks west of the usual landing-place at Capri, and about one mile and a half distant from it, leads into an immense circular cavern, recently discovered—well worth notice, and distinguished by the name of “La Grotta Azurra.” Persons who visit this sapphire cell are obliged to place themselves horizontally in the little bark destined to convey them through the above low and narrow aperture, which is so small as to excite an alarm of finding darkness within; but, on the contrary, if the day be cloudless, all is light—light that would dazzle were it not blue. The color of the water which fills the cavern precisely resembles that of the large bottles of vitriol, with lamps behind them, seen at the windows of our apothecaries; and this water appears to act like the lens of a telescope, by conducting the rays of the sun and the reflection of the brilliant skies of Magna Græcia into the cavern. After the eye has been for a few moments accustomed to a light so magical, the stupendous vaults of this gigantic bath are discernible, richly studded with stalactites, and assuming, in consequence of a strong reflection from the transparent blue water, exactly the same tint. The cavern contains broken steps leading to a subterraneous passage, the length of which is unknown, it being impossible to reach the end, owing to an impediment formed by earth and stones. Masonry seems to have been employed in the construction of the steps and passage, which probably communicated either with one of Tiberius’ villas or that of Julia, the niece of Augustus; but the cavern, although it may have been used as a bathing-place, is evidently the work of nature.

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## THE CITIES OF SILENCE.

**B**Y this very expressive name the Turks distinguish the grounds in which the remains of the dead are deposited. The force of the term can only be well appreciated by the traveler in the East, who, in the neighborhood of a great city, has frequently to traverse such a vast extent of ground marked by monumental stones on either hand, before he can arrive at the abodes of living men, as to compel the most unthinking to feel “that the capital of the living, spite of its immense population, scarce counts a single breathing inhabitant for every ten silent inmates of

the city of the dead." This was spoken of the public cemeteries of Constantinople, the largest city where the Moslem usages of interment prevail, and where, therefore, the extent of the ground occupied by cemeteries, arising from the dislike of the Turks to reöpen the ground where it is known that a body has been interred, appears with magnified effect. In mentioning generally the appearance presented by these cemeteries, it would be an injury to the reader to use other words than those of the eloquent author of "Anastasius." "Already its fields of mouldering bodies and its gardens of blooming sepulchres stretch far away on every side, across the brow of the hills, and at the bend of the valleys; already the avenues which cross each other at every step in this domain of death are so lengthened, that the weary stranger, from whatever point he comes, still finds before him many a dreary mile of road between marshaled tombs and mournful cypresses, ere he reaches his journey's seemingly receding end; and yet every year does this common patrimony of all the heirs of decay still exhibit a rapidly increasing size, a fresher and wider line of boundary, and a new belt of plantations growing up between new flowerbeds of graves." The slabs, by which the graves are usually covered, are perforated with holes, through which the most beautiful flowers grow and shed their fragrance and their leaves around.

The principal cemetery of the Mahommedans is at Scutari, on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus; for the Turks have a very strong impression that they shall ultimately be driven out of Europe by the Christians, and are not, therefore, willing that their bones should remain in a soil to be polluted by the rule of the Giaour. A little consideration would teach them, however, that if the Christian possessed Constantinople, the Moslem would not long be allowed to retain Scutari. The same impression operates differently on the Christians, inducing them to prefer the European side for their interments.

We were at first surprised to find the cypress-tree appropriated, among the Turks, to the sepulchral uses, in connexion with which it is always mentioned in the ancient and modern poetry of Europe. But, on consideration, we concluded that they merely retained a usage which they found existing in the Greek cities which they acquired in Asia and Europe. "This fine tree," says Sir John Cam Hobhouse, "has, with its gloomy green, long overshadowed the memorials of mortality; and its thick foliage, as well as the grateful odor of its wood, must serve to counteract the effects which would otherwise be produced, if graves, only a foot or too in depth, and containing corpses without coffins, were exposed to the burning summer sun." The number and extent of the cemeteries thus planted might be taken to characterize Constantinople, whose palaces, mosques, and minarets, seem embosomed in cypress woods.

As these trees, however, preclude an extensive view over the grounds in which the spectator is standing, the entire impression is not more forcible upon his mind than when, in lands more eastward, where the cypress does not grow, he perceives, at one view, the hills, the valley, and the plain, crowded to a vast extent with white monumental stones, in their general appearance not unlike the statue of Hermes, and which, in the obscurity of night, might lead the superstitious mind to fancy that the grave

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"Had op'd its ponderous and marble jaws."



to yield up the departed. Such cemeteries, neglected and overgrown, and frequently consisting of rude, unsculptured stones of every dimension, and stuck in the ground in various directions, often occur at a great distance from any existing towns or villages; but indicate sites formerly occupied, and tell more strongly than any abstract conception could do, how exceedingly populous the grave is. The monotony of the "Fields of the Dead" of this sort is usually relieved by the small but neat square and open structures, surmounted by a dome, under which repose the ashes of the wealthy, in places where cemeteries are not, as in Cairo, specially appropriated to their reception.

The attractive features which Mohammedan burialgrounds usually exhibit have been noticed by most travelers; and, separately from the saddening associations to which such spots give occasion, they are commonly the most pleasing promenades which Eastern cities offer. The trees, with which they are thickly planted in the western parts of Turkey, afford a grateful shade; and the cooing of the wild doves that build their nests among the branches, is a circumstance of additional attraction in a scene which is, upon the whole, not much solemnized by the grotesque and flaringly-colored sepulchres of the Turks. For ourselves, we confess that, so far as solemnizing effects go, we have been much more moved by the forsaken and ruined cemeteries to which we have just alluded, than even in the funeral woods of Constantinople, where the turbaned stones frequently disturbed our solemnity quite as much as the absurdities too often inscribed on the headstones in our church-yards.

Although the Turks have no notion of walking for exercise or pleasure, they have, perhaps, as much relish as any people for pleasant situations; and, whether from this cause, or regard to the dead, they like to resort, in fine weather, to the cemeteries, and perform their devotions near the graves of those who have been taken from them. The women frequent the "Cities of Silence" very generally on Fridays, on which day they believe that their friends awaken to the consciousness of their former ties and relations. They may then be seen very affectingly grouped around the graves, from which they carefully remove weeds and other unseemly things, and which they as carefully decorate with garlands, myrtles, and flowers. It is remarkable that the Turkish females are just as reserved near the graves of the dead, as in the presence of living men. This, no doubt, arises from the idea, already stated, that the inmates of the graves around are sensible of their presence, and the practice is countenanced by the example of no less a person than the "Mother of the Faithful," of whom it is recorded in that curious work the "Mischat ul Masabih," a book of traditions concerning Mahommed, that "Aayesha said, 'I was accustomed to go to the house where the Prophet and Abubekr were interred, without my upper garments; for I said to myself, nobody lies here but my husband, who is the messenger of God; and my father, who is Abubekr the Pure! But when Omar-ibn-al-Khattab died and was buried there, I never entered but with my body completely covered, on account of my modesty towards Omar, who was a stranger.'"

Our engraving, which represents part of a Turkish burial ground with a funeral approaching, shows, in considerable variety, the different kinds of tombs and monuments which such places exhibit, and will convey a general idea of the funeral processions. The deceased is carried to the grave on a



CITIES OF SILENCE—TURKISH FUNERAL.





litter, or in an open barrow; branches are carried before and behind it, and his favorite horse is led after. The body has many bearers; for, as it passes through the streets, devout men run from their houses and assist in carrying it a little way, this being considered a very meritorious action. The corpse is always interred without a coffin, and in some parts of Turkey is wrapped up in cotton, while in others the best of the deceased person's ordinary dresses is employed.

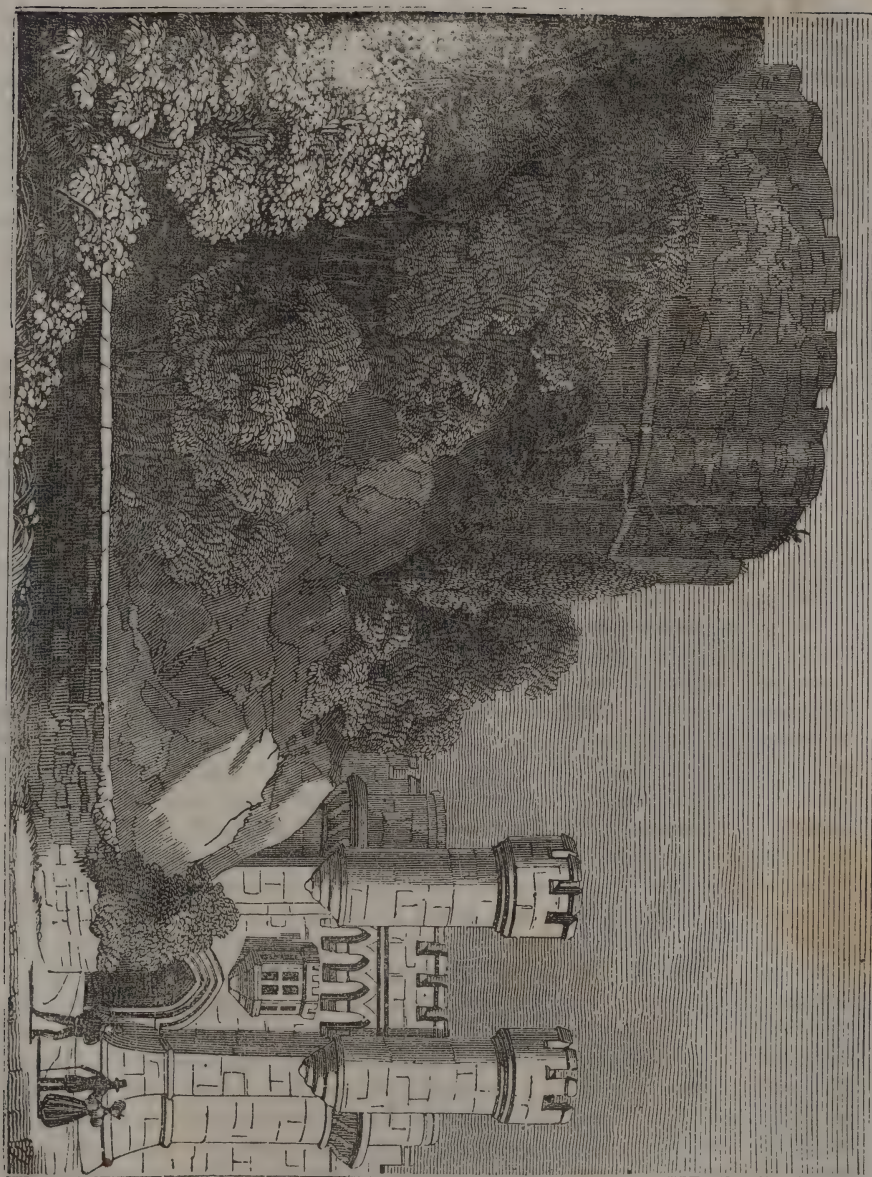
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## YORK CASTLE AND CLIFFORD'S TOWER.

**Y**ORK CASTLE stands at the distance of about 200 yards from the eastern bank of the Ouse, and close to the Foss, which being brought round it in a deep moat or ditch renders it inaccessible, except from the city, on the north. Historical evidence sufficiently proves that before the Norman Conquest York had a castle, which Drake, in his "*Eboracum*," supposes to have been the Old Bailie, on the opposite side of the Ouse. The castle on the present site, according to the opinion of the same author, was built by William the Conqueror, but probably on a Roman foundation. Having fallen to decay, it was repaired, or rebuilt, in the reign of Richard III. After it was no longer used as a fortress, it was converted into a county prison; but, having fallen into a ruinous state from age, it was taken down in the year 1701, and in its stead a structure was erected which, so lately as thirty years since, was considered to form one of the best regulated and most commodious prisons in the kingdom. However, it was presented by the grand jury for insufficiency; and this presentment was repeated at each succeeding assizes, until a resolution was at last passed that a competition of architects should be invited in the usual manner, in order to procure the best plan for effecting the proposed improvements. That of Mr. Robinson of London was preferred, and in 1826 the works were commenced under his direction and superintendence.

The plan of the new portion of the prison is upon the radiated and pan-opticon system, the governor's house forming a centre from which all the prisons and airing courts diverge. Each prison is capable of containing 20 individuals; the day rooms are on the ground floor, and the cells in two stories above. For each class of prisoners there is a paved yard, and a court for exercise 100 feet in length by 50 feet at the wide end, narrowed to 10 feet at the farther extremity. The cells are constructed 8 feet by 5 feet, with corridors affording access to them all. The peculiarity of the plan—and it is believed that this prison is the only one that has been built with this arrangement—is, that the governor and turnkeys can pass unseen from the centre to any part of the prison, through secret passages in each of the buildings, connected with a corridor of inspection which surrounds and connects the whole. From these passages, too, everything that passes within the prisons can be seen; and as the prisoners

ENTRANCE TO YORK CASTLE.





know this, they have a right to suppose that the governor's eye is always upon them.

Prison building is not at all times interesting in an architectural point of view; but the architect has, in this instance, adopted the castellated character. In enlarging the old building, he has formed his design in the style of the ancient bars or city gates of York, which are much admired for their simplicity, and for the manner in which they preserve the architectural characteristics of the age in which they were built. The entrance gate-house, the internal elevation of which is exhibited in the engraving, is in some degree similar to the Monk Bar. It is flanked by circular towers of great strength, and extends 70 feet in front by 46 in depth. The prison is fire proof, the structure being entirely of stone; the walls are five feet thick below, and three feet above, and no timber is used in the floors, the stone extending from wall to wall. Each cell of the prison is covered with a single piece of stone five inches thick, and the cells are divided laterally by single stones nine inches thick. The doors are of hammered iron, and three iron guards are placed in each aperture in the thickness of the wall.

The boundary wall, surrounding the new prison, the old debtor's prison and the court house, is 35 feet in height above the ground, and it has towers at intervals to strengthen it. This wall is 1350 feet in length, and is, in itself, a specimen of very superior workmanship. Upon the whole, York Castle may be considered the strongest prison in England, and it is certainly one of the most complete and efficient. The criminal side affords room for 160 prisoners, divided into eight classes of twenty each. The airing courts are divided by walls twenty feet in height. The whole building is well supplied with water and well ventilated.

In all the alterations which have taken place, "Clifford's Tower," which stands within the walls, and which we now proceed to notice, has been preserved with the most scrupulous care. A short distance within the gateway there is a high mound, thrown up with prodigious labor, and surrounded by a strong stone wall. It appears to be elevated at least ninety feet above the level of the Ouse, and thirty feet above the site of the castle or jail, and the adjacent parts of the city. On the summit of this mount stands an ancient tower, called "Clifford's Tower;" and, according to tradition, one of that family was its first governor, after it had been built by the Conqueror for the purpose of overawing the city and country. The castle itself was found by Leland in a ruinous state in the time of Henry VIII. But on the commencement of the civil wars between Charles I. and the Parliament, it was completely repaired and fortified by order of the Earl of Cumberland, the governor of York. On the top of the tower was made a platform, on which several pieces were mounted; a garrison was appointed for its defence, and Colonel Sir Francis Cob was its governor during the siege of the city. After the surrender of York in 1644, it was dismantled of its garrison, except this tower, of which Thomas Dickenson, the lord mayor, a man strongly attached to the cause of the Parliament, was constituted governor. It continued in the hands of his successors, as governors, till 1683, when Sir John Reresby was appointed to that office by Charles II. In the following year, 1684, on the festival of St. George, about 10 o'clock in the evening, the magazine took fire and blew up, and the tower was reduced to a shell, as it

remains at this day. Whether this happened accidentally or by design was never ascertained; but the demolition of the "minced pie" was, at that time, a common toast in the city; and it was observed that the officers and soldiers of the garrison had previously removed their effects, and that not a single man perished by the explosion.

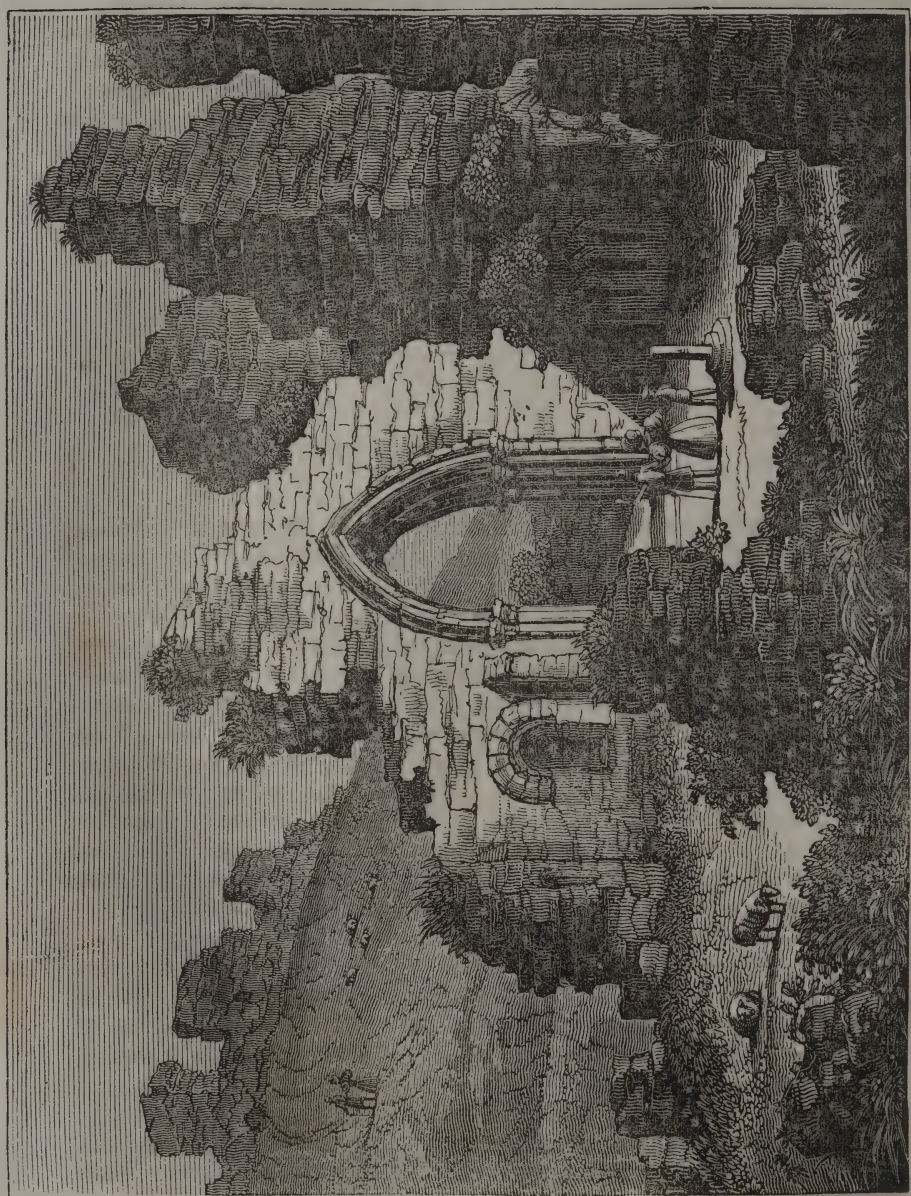
The mount on which this tower stands corresponds, as already observed, with that of the Old Bailie on the opposite side of the Ouse. Within this tower is an excellent well of water: here was also a dungeon so dark as not to admit the least ray of light. Drake says—"By the extraordinary labor required for the raising of this mount, it seems to have been effected by no less than a Roman power, though the Conqueror might build the present structure, the inside of which exhibits a regularity very uncommon in a Gothic edifice." But Mr. Bigland remarks on this—"We have no such knowledge of the Roman 'Eboracum,' as can enable the present age to advance anything beyond conjecture on the subject; and great works have been performed by other men as well as by Romans."

## THE CASTLE OF HASTINGS.

**U**PON a lofty rocky cliff, to the westward of the town of Hastings, England, there are some remains of a large and very ancient castle. At what period or by whom it was erected is not stated; but from its situation, which must have been particularly favorable to the ancient mode of fortification, it is more than probable that a fortress existed here long before that which the Danish rovers, under Hastings their leader, are said to have constructed. This conjecture receives some support from a passage in the "Chronicles of Dover Monastery," which says, "that when Arviragus threw off the Roman yoke, it is likely he fortified those places which were most convenient for their invasion, namely, Richborough, Walmer, Dover, and Hastings." Bishop Lyttleton, however, was inclined to think that here was originally a Roman fortress, built as a defence against the invasion of the pirates. He further observes, that although William the Conqueror, as we are told, ran up a fort at Hastings just before his engagement with Harold, this could not have been his work, as it would have required more time and labor than his circumstances would then have allowed; and concludes that William might probably have repaired the old Roman castle and have placed a garrison in it. It appears that, in the year 1090, almost all the bishops and nobles of England were assembled by royal authority at the castle of Hastings, to pay personal homage to King William II. before his departure for Normandy.

Little more concerning this castle is mentioned in history, except that within its walls there was a free royal chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which was a dean with several secular canons and prebendaries. It is supposed to have been founded by one of the earls of Eu while proprietor of the castle. Prynne, as quoted by Grose, records various circumstances relative to a dispute between King Edward III. and the Bishop of Chi-





RUINS OF ST. MARY'S CHAPEL.

chester and Archbishop of Canterbury, concerning the right claimed by them of visiting this chapel, which, however, in the reign of Henry VI., was placed under the jurisdiction of the former of these prelates.

What remains of the castle approaches nearest in shape to two sides of an oblique spherical triangle, having the points rounded off. The base, or south side next the sea, completing the triangle, is formed by a perpendicular craggy cliff about 400 feet in length, upon which are no vestiges of walls or other fortification. The east side is made by a plain wall measuring near 300 feet, without tower or defence of any kind. The adjoining side, which faces the north-west, is about 400 feet long. The area included is about an acre and one-fifth. The walls, nowhere entire, are about eight feet thick. The gateway, now demolished, was on the north side, near the northernmost angle. Not far from it, to the west, are the remains of a small tower, enclosing a circular flight of stairs; and still farther westward, a sally-port and the ruins of another tower. On the east side, at the distance of about 100 feet, ran a ditch, 100 feet in breadth at the top, and 60 feet deep; but both the ditch, and the interval between it and the wall, seem to have gradually narrowed as they approached the gate, under which they terminated. On the north-west side there was another ditch of the same breadth, commencing at the cliff opposite to the westernmost angle, and bearing away almost due north, leaving a level intermediate space which, opposite to the sally-port, was 180 feet in breadth.

The castle, together with the rape of Hastings, which always accompanied it, underwent many changes of proprietors until the year 1461, when the estate came into the possession of Sir William Hastings, on whom the title of Lord Hastings was bestowed by Edward IV. This was the nobleman whose name has been rendered so familiar by the histories of England, Shakspeare's play of Richard III., and the romances about Jane Shore. When the fidelity of Lord Hastings to the children of Edward IV. cost him his life, his estates were forfeited to the crown; but they were restored to his son by Henry VII., and confirmed to him by Henry VIII. By one of his descendants, who were invested with the earldom of Huntingdon, the castle of Hastings was sold, together with the manors of Crawhurst, Burwash, and Berelham, to Thomas Pelham, Esq., to whom the perpetuity was confirmed by James I. in 1605. In his family it has ever since remained, and at present belongs to the Earl of Chichester, to whose father it was bequeathed by the first Duke of Newcastle.

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## DIANA.

**D**IANA, the daughter of Jupiter and Latona, received a worship among the Greeks, nearly as extensive as that of her twin-brother, Apollo. She was the goddess of the woods and of the chase on earth, and was known as Luna in heaven, and Hecate in hell. She was most recognized in the former character, in which she is frequently represented, in ancient statues, as running with her vest shortened and girt



around her, and yet flying back with the wind. She generally appears as tall of stature; and, in correspondence with the tastes assigned her, her countenance exhibits a somewhat manly expression combined with its feminine characteristics. Her legs are always bare, well-shaped, and strong; and her feet are sometimes naked, but oftener adorned with some sort of buskin or sandal. She generally has a quiver on her shoulder, and sometimes a javelin, but more frequently a bow in her hand; and a dog is usually by her side or at her feet. The statues of Diana were, in ancient times frequently placed in the woods, representing her as hunting, bathing, or reposing after fatigue. When, under other circumstances, Diana was represented as the intelligence that presides over the moon, she usually appeared in a car drawn by deer, but more commonly by white horses, with a lunar crown, or crescent, on her forehead.

"Diana," says Winckelmann, "has the figure and air of a virgin more than any of the other superior goddesses. Gifted with all the attractions of her sex, she seems not to be aware of her beauty; yet her looks are not cast down like those of Pallas; her bright and cheerful eyes are directed toward the object of her delight—the chase. Her hair is gathered on all sides of her head, and forms behind, on her neck, a knot in the style used by virgins. Her shape is more light and slender than that of either Juno or Pallas. She has generally but a slight garment, which merely descends to her knees; and is the only goddess sometimes seen with the bosom uncovered."


This celebrated antiquary's description of Diana very nearly corresponds with the statue represented in our engraving. She is dressed in a short, plaited and sleeveless tunic, which is confined by a sort of mantle passed over her left shoulder, and folded round her waist. The left hand is employed in holding back a fawn, while the right is raised to take an arrow from the quiver which is upon her shoulder. The legs are naked, but her feet are furnished with rich sandals. She seems in the act of protecting the hind which she holds with her left hand, while her looks are turned in apparent severity and anger in a direction opposite to that in which the animal is going. This hind is concluded to be the fabulous one of Mount Coryneum, with its brazen feet and antlers of gold, which was consecrated to Diana by the nymph Taygete, the daughter of Atlas. Hercules, when in subjection to Eurystheus, received orders to bring this animal alive to Mycenæ. This was the fourth of his famous labors. He pursued the hind through many countries, and at last overtook it in Arcadia, at the passage of the river Ladon. But his labor was in vain, for Diana descended from Mount Artemisius, and rescued the consecrated prey, menacing the demi-god himself with her weapons. This is very probably the incident which the sculptor intended to represent in this admirable statue, which is not unworthy of a comparison with the more famous Apollo Belvidere. It is certainly the finest of the statues of Diana which have come down to us from ancient times. It is of Parian marble, and remains in a very good state of preservation. The height of the statue is six feet, six inches and two-thirds. It has been in France since the reign of Henry IV.; but when and how it was brought is not known.



STATUE OF THE GODDESS DIANA.

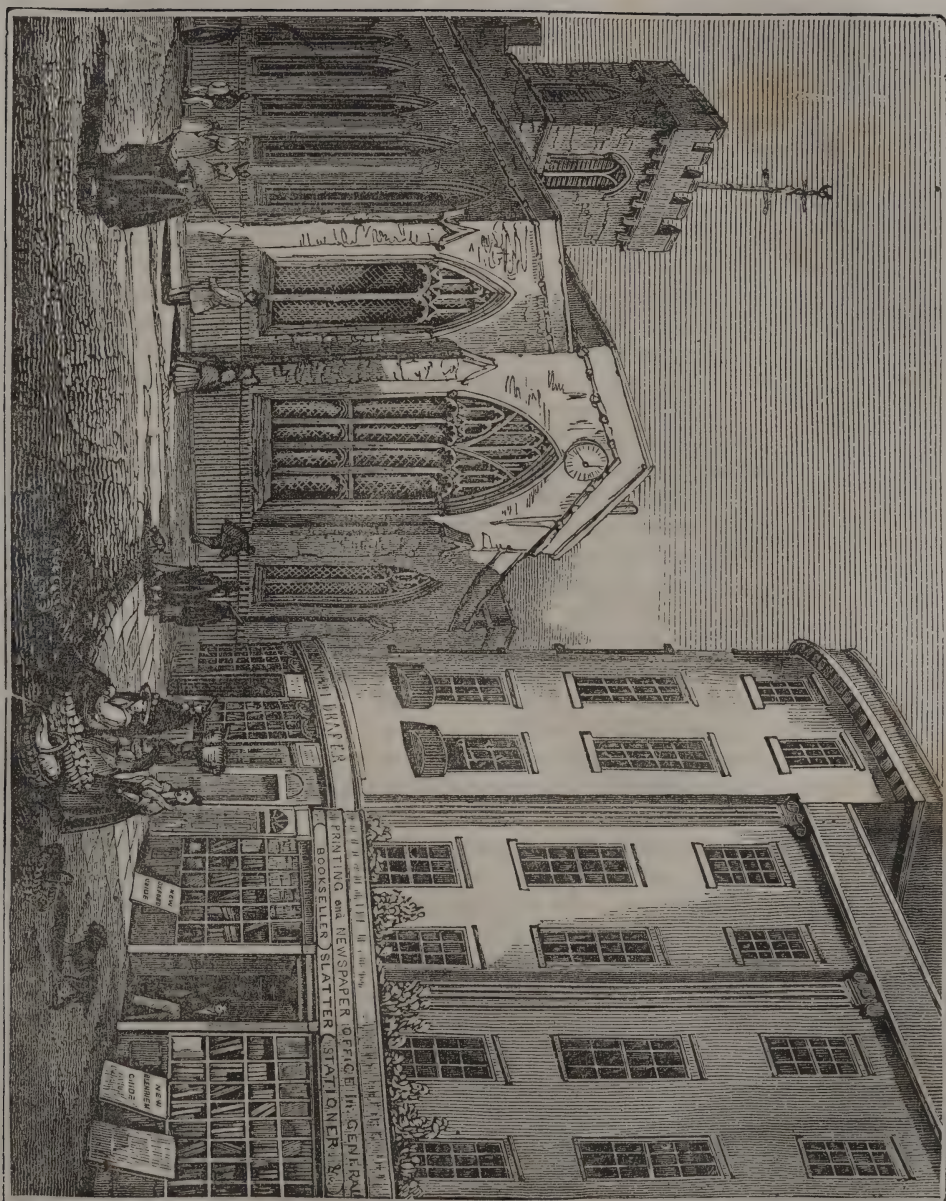


## OXFORD.

XFORD is the capital of the county to which it gives name, and, as the seat of one of the most celebrated universities of Europe, equaled by few in extent, wealth, and antiquity, claims a relative importance much beyond that to which it would be entitled by the amount of its population. The town is situated in the central part of England, about fifty-four miles N.N.W. of London, and is pleasantly placed upon a gentle eminence in a valley, at the confluence of two small rivers, the Isis and Cherwell. These streams, in their circuitous and meandering approach to each other, almost enclose the city, the former on the west and south, and the latter on the east. Along the rivers, and between them and the city, lie rich and verdant meadows, beyond which the prospect is bounded by an amphitheatre of hills, except towards the north, where it extends over a rich champaign country, in the highest state of cultivation.

Oxford is a place of very remote antiquity ; but the period of its origin is involved in considerable uncertainty, from the difficulty of distinguishing what parts of the information given by old chroniclers were derived by them from the legitimate sources of history, and what from the legendary tales of the bards. We shall, however, certainly not err in assigning to the latter source the statement which makes the foundation of Oxford, nearly coëval with the destruction of Troy. The first certain fact connected with the subject, at which we can arrive, even under the Saxons, is, that in the reign of king Alfred, who at one time resided at Oxford with his three sons, the place was noted for a monastery, which was founded in the year 727, and which sober writers, with great appearance of probability, conclude to have formed the nucleus of the town, by gathering around it the dwellings of the laity. Since that period, the name of Oxford is of very frequent occurrence in history.

Almost the earliest authentic information of the existence of this town states that it was set on fire twice, and otherwise suffered much from the Danes, in the reign of Ethelred the Unready ; we are therefore prepared to learn that when that monarch ordered a general massacre of the Danes throughout his dominions, this order was executed with most terrible fidelity at Oxford in particular. In revenge for the active part which it took in this transaction, Sweyn again fired the town on his next descent on that country ; and in the year 1013 the place was surrendered to him by order of Ethelred. In subsequent years, Oxford was frequently the residence of the court. Edmund Ironside was murdered there ; Canute held there a great council, at which the laws of Edgar were made binding upon all the subjects of the crown,—Danes as well as English ; and on the death of that prince, a Witenagemote was held there to settle the succession of the crown, and Harold Harefoot, who succeeded, was crowned and died at Oxford. The town seems to have been much attached to the other Harold, who was killed at Hastings, and was one of those that held out, for a time, against the Conqueror, who, however, took it by storm, in 1067, and



OXFORD—HIGH STREET.



bestowed it upon Robert D'Oyley, one of his officers, in whom he had great confidence.

The Empress Maude, daughter of Henry I., during her contest with king Stephen, obtained possession of the castle; but being closely besieged by the latter, she avoided being taken prisoner, only by escaping through the postern-gate, dressed in white linen, with four knights similarly disguised. She passed across the Isis, which was frozen, and traveled on foot six miles, through deep snow, to Abingdon, and thence to Wallingford, where she was joyfully welcomed. Her son, Henry II., resided, during the greater part of his reign, at Oxford, in a palace called Beaumont, which had been built by his grandfather; in this palace was born his valiant son, Richard Cœur de Lion, who held a council there before his departure for Palestine. King John spent much of his time in the same palace, and had a meeting with his barons in the vicinity, about two months before they compelled him to sign the Magna Charta. Henry III. also occasionally resided at Oxford, and several parliaments and councils were held there during his reign; but afterwards the town became less distinguished as the residence of the court, and the theatre of political transactions. Edward II. made a present of the palace to the Carmelites, and some remains of it are still extant.

In the reign of Henry VIII. Oxford was the seat of one of the six new bishoprics created by that monarch. In the reign of his daughter Mary, Oxford was chosen for the burning of the bishops, Latimer and Ridley, for the alleged crimes of heresy and treason; and, a few months after, Cranmer suffered death at the same place. To Queen Elizabeth, the homage of learning was particularly grateful, and she visited the place frequently in order to receive it. Her successor was driven thither, on one occasion, for refuge from the plague in London; but the plague reached Oxford also, and its devastations were so awful, that the scholars hastened from the university, and the citizens shut up their shops. "Not a living creature," says Ayliffe, "besides nurses and corpse-bearers, was to be seen in the streets, which were covered with grass, even in the market-place." During the civil war, in the reign of Charles I., Oxford was the scene of some important transactions. The king, after the battle of Edgehill, in October, 1642, made himself master of the place, which may be said to have remained his head-quarters until 1646, when, having previously delivered himself up to the Scottish army, at Newark, he gave orders that the town should be surrendered to the parliamentary forces.

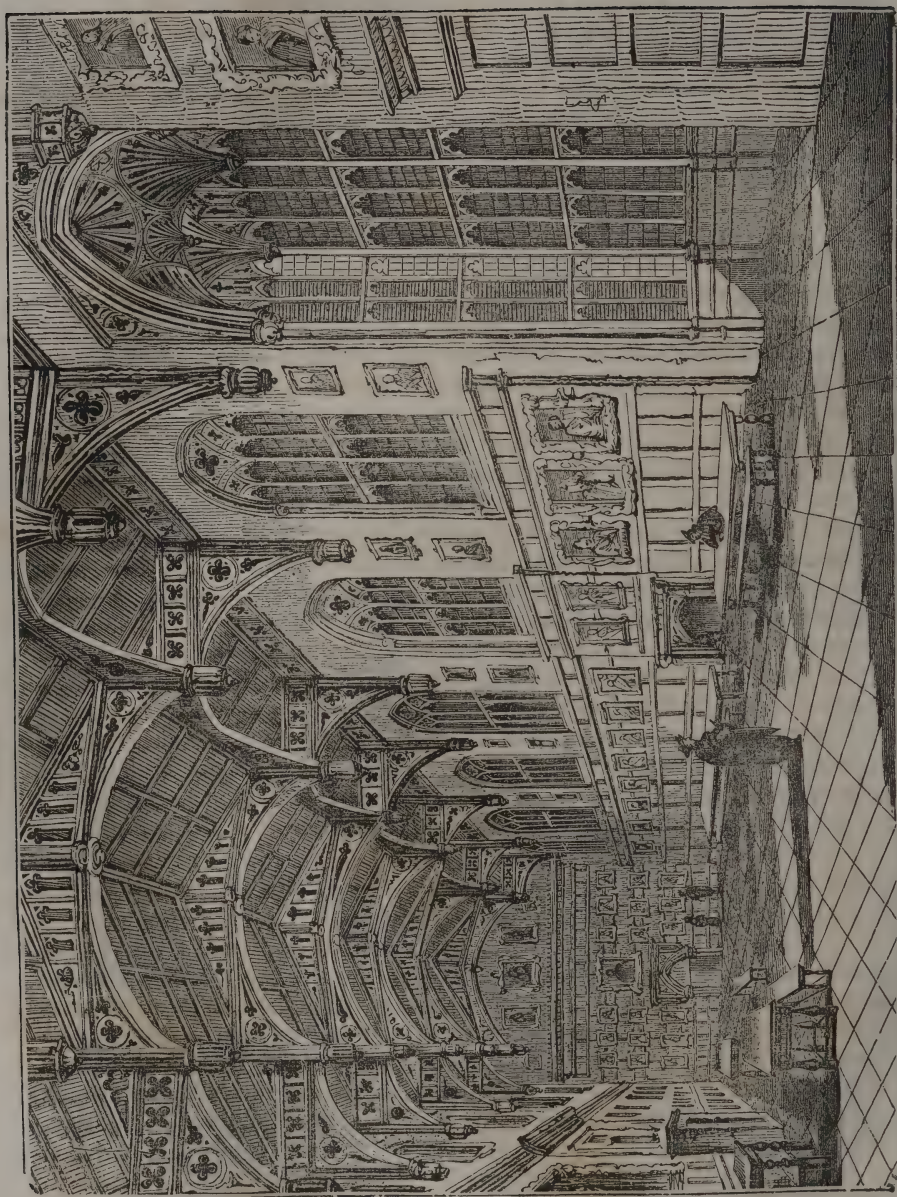
The appearance of Oxford from the high grounds to the east and south-west is highly picturesque and interesting. The view embraces groups of towers, domes, spires, pinnacles, and turrets, intermingled with dark masses of foliage, surrounded by rich meadows, intersected by many streams. The striking effect is not diminished, although varied, on a nearer approach, which affords an opportunity for the number and magnitude of the public buildings, with the splendid details of their architecture, to be more distinctly observed. The town, with its immediate suburbs, comprises an area of about three miles in circumference, extending a mile and a quarter from east to west, and nearly as far from north to south. The city itself is of an oval form, and was formerly surrounded by a wall, with bastions 150 feet distant from each other; but of these works there are but few existing traces.

The approaches to Oxford from the London road on the east, and from the west, the north, and the south, are all very fine, though dissimilar in effect. The entrances from all these directions except the north are over bridges. From Magdalen Bridge the High street extends, under different names, the whole length of the city. This street is generally allowed to be one of the most striking and beautiful in Europe. On passing the bridge and proceeding up this street, the fronts of many churches, colleges, and other public edifices, in combination with private houses in ancient and modern style, are brought into view in gradual and beautiful succession. The street is wide as well as long; but it has a gentle curvature, to which much of its striking effect is owing, for at almost every step the passenger is presented with new objects and fine combinations. At one point, in particular, the whole *coup d'œil* is singularly impressive and picturesque; this is at a broad part of the street near the middle, where Queen's College on the right hand, and University College on the left, form the foreground of the scene, while the front of All Souls, the steeple and rich meadows of St. Mary's Church, the modern spire of All Saints' Church, and the old tower of St. Martin's, constitute the prominent features in the distance, and the whole presents a street scene, unrivaled in beauty, variety and effect.

Christ Church College is the largest and most magnificent foundation at Oxford, and owes its origin to Cardinal Wolsey, who, in 1524 and 1525, obtained a bull from the pope, authorizing him to suppress twenty-two inferior priories and nunneries, and apply their revenues in support of his intended college. The original plan of this foundation provided for one hundred and sixty persons, who were to apply themselves to the study of the sciences at large, as well as to polite literature. The cardinal settled on this society a clear annual revenue of £2,000; and commenced the present building for the use of its members, under the name of Cardinal's College. After his disgrace and death, the king, who had in the first instance seized its revenues, and arrested its progress, was induced to patronize the institution; and reëndowed it for the support of a dean and twelve canons, under the name of "King Henry the Eighth's College." The establishment afterwards underwent other alterations, which gave it the character of a cathedral establishment; and its chapel was made the cathedral church of the bishopric of Oxford, which it still remains, although still maintaining its character as a college chapel.

To give our readers an idea of the buildings of this extensive and splendid establishment would much exceed our limits. The buildings altogether occupy two large and two small quadrangles. The great west quadrangle was chiefly the work of Wolsey, and is an interesting indication of what he intended the whole to have been, if he had lived to complete his design. It is entered by the gateway of the principal front, which extends 382 feet, having in the centre a stately tower, begun by Wolsey, but only completed in 1681, by Sir Christopher Wren. The hall and kitchen are on the south side of this quadrangle;—the hall is one of the finest in the kingdom, measuring 115 feet by 40, and 50 feet in height; its roof is of elaborately carved oak, and the sides, of paneled wainscot, are decorated with an extensive collection of portraits, some of which are curious. Of this hall a representation is given. The parliamentary visitors sat in this hall, in 1648, to eject such members of the University





OXFORD—CHRIST CHURCH HALL.







as refused to submit to their authority. The other large quadrangle, termed "Peckwater Court," was erected at the commencement of the last century, and has the library on its south side. This noble building, which was commenced in 1716, but not completed until 1761, is 141 feet long in front, and on the basement story contains, besides a portion of the books, a collection of pictures,—not of the first order of excellence,—bequeathed to the college by General Guise in 1765. The library is very rich in manuscripts, prints, and coins.

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## THE HYRAX, OR DAMAN.

**P**LACED in the *pachydermatous* order—an order which comprehends the hippopotamus, the elephant, the horse, and the hog—the hyrax, or daman, presents a singular contrast, both as respects its appearance and its habits, to the huge and massive animals with which it is associated. So marked indeed is its affinity to certain of the *rodentia*, that Pallas placed it among the *cavies*, under the name of *cavia Capensis*, and Buffon termed it "*la marmotte du Cap*." Following the received opinion, Hermann, though he constituted the hyrax as an independent genus, still retained it among the *rodentia*, nor was its true situation in the animal world discovered until Cuvier pointed it out, proving from the characters of the dentition, the skeleton, and the internal anatomy, its strict alliance to the *pachydermata*, while at the same time it is to be regarded as leading from this order to that with which it was formerly associated. The hyrax is undoubtedly the coney of Scripture; or rather, perhaps we should say, one of the species is the animal thus alluded to, for there appear to be two if not three distinct species, of which one inhabits the rocky parts of Syria and North Africa and the two districts adjacent to the Cape of Good Hope. Of these latter, the *hyrax arboreus*, or *boom-dos* of the colonists, differs from its congeners not only in markings, but in the circumstance of its preferring hollow trees for its abode. Whether the Syrian hyrax and the Cape hyrax are truly distinct, admits of a question. At all events they agree in habits, manners, and general appearance, so that what is spoken of one relates to the other also. The hyrax is called *klip-dos*, by the colonists of the Cape. The localities in which it is found are exclusively the rocky and mountain districts, the fissures and caves of which afford it an asylum. It abounds on the sides of Table Mountain, where it may be seen skipping near its burrow's mouth, or cropping the herbage; on the least alarm, however, it instantly retreats to its strong hold, whence it cannot be dislodged without the greatest difficulty. Quick, watchful, and active as the hyrax is, it is frequently captured by the ferocious animals which lurk around its abode, and still more frequently by the larger birds of prey, which pounce upon it before it is aware of their approach. The eagle, whose nest is on the inaccessible pinnacle of the rock, at the base of

THE HYRAX, OR DAMAN.





which the unsuspecting hyrax is frolicking, marks her victim as she sails around her eyrie, and with a swoop rapid as the fall of an aërolite, lays it prostrate, grasps it in her talons, and mounts with it to her young.

We have seen more than one example of the hyrax of the Cape in captivity. Gentle and inoffensive, it exhibited a very limited share of intelligence, but was playful, and not without a demonstration of attachment to those with whom it was familiar. Its actions, and indeed its general aspect, much resemble those of a rabbit, with which animal it agrees in size. The Syrian hyrax we have never seen; but Cuvier says that he can discover no difference between it and its South African relative, and evidently considers them as identical, which is the more probable, as the hyrax from Abyssinia, said to be the same as the Syrian, and which we have seen, is not to be distinguished. In the general contour of its body the hyrax is stout and thickly set. The limbs are short, the toes on each foot are four before and three behind, all being tipped with little slender hoofs, except the inner toe of each hind foot, which is armed with a long crooked nail. The head is large and thick, the eyes of a moderate size, the ears short and rounded; the teeth consist of molars and incisors, the former bearing a close resemblance in miniature to those of the Rhinoceros. The incisors are two above and four below; the two in the upper jaw are strong, elongated, and pointed, having a great resemblance to *canines*; their situation being lateral, a wide interval separating between them. The incisors of the lower jaw are in pairs, separated by a small interval; they are flat, with indented edges. It has no tail. The general color of the fur, which is soft and thick, is a dark grayish brown, becoming paler beneath. Our sketch is from nature.

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## THE EGYPTIAN VULTURE.

**A**LTHOUGH the parallels which, in the present day, some distinguished naturalists have attempted to draw between *mammalia* and *birds* are for the most overstrained and visionary, there are certainly some instances in which they are truly indicated by Nature. This analogy is perhaps in no instance better established than between the vultures and the hyæna, jackal or wolf. Alike scavengers of the earth, they clear it of its dead, they remove its offal—its noisome *rejectamenta*, which would otherwise corrupt the air with pestilential exhalations. The vultures, however, have far less ferocity in their disposition than the analogous quadrupeds. The latter attack living prey with great ferocity and strong appetite for blood, whilst the former exclusively gorge upon the carcasses of the dead, and never make the living their victims. Happily for them they are seldom at a loss for a meal in the countries where they abound. The unburied slain on the field of battle attract them in flocks from a great distance; the death of any beast in the field calls an assembly to the banquet. Sailing on their wide and ample wings they sweep from





THE VULTURE OF EGYPT.



the higher regions of the air to their repast, on which they often gorge themselves till unable to rise from the spot. It is only when impelled by hunger that the vulture proceeds in quest of his carrion-food, and rouses from his apathy to traverse the air. Mounting aloft till almost out of sight, he skims in large circles, sustained on outspread but motionless pinions, scanning the surface of the earth. Often, indeed, the sky seems quite clear, and not the least trace of any bird can be discovered by the eye; but no sooner does an animal fall—or no sooner has the hunter slain or abandoned his quarry—than, as if called at once into existence, multitudes of vultures seem pouring from the sky, and flocking to the feast.

Is it by the powers of sight or smell that these birds, afar off in the air above, or on the very verge of the horizon, are thus led to their booty? This is a question not yet settled. The ancient classic writers teem with passages attributing to the vulture a keen and discriminating scent; and certainly the development of the organs of this sense would seem to favor the opinion, which is supported by Mr. Waterton and others, but which Mr. Audubon considers to be erroneous. This latter observer of Nature maintains that it is by the extraordinary powers of sight that the vulture perceives his prey, and Le Vaillant explains the circumstance upon the same theory. "Desirous," he says, "of observing how so great a number of vultures could congregate together in so short a space of time, I concealed myself one day in a thicket, after having killed a large gazelle, which I left upon the spot. In an instant a number of ravens made their appearance, fluttering about the animal, and making a great croaking. In less than a quarter of an hour these birds were reinforced by the arrival of kites and buzzards; and immediately afterwards I perceived on raising my head, a flight of birds at a prodigious height, wheeling round and round in their descent. These I soon recognized to be vultures, which seemed, if I may so express myself, to escape from a cavern in the sky. The first comers fell immediately upon the gazelle, but I did not allow them time to tear it in pieces. I left my concealment, and they betook themselves slowly and heavily to flight, rejoining their comrades, whose numbers seemed to increase. They seemed almost to precipitate themselves from the clouds to share the spoil, but my presence caused them speedily to disappear. Thus it is, then, that the vultures are called upon to participate in their prey; the first carnivorous birds that discover a carcass rouse the others which may happen to be in the environs by their cries and by their motions. If the nearest vulture does not spy his prey from the lofty region of the air in which he swims by means of his wide-spread wings, he perceives at least the subaltern and more terrestrial birds of prey preparing to take possession of it; but perhaps he has himself a sufficient power of vision to enable him to discover it. He descends hastily and with a wheeling flight, and his fall directs the other vultures who witness his evolutions, and who no doubt have their instinct sharpened with regard to everything that concerns their food. A concourse of carnivorous birds speedily takes place in the neighborhood of the carcass, sufficient to attract the vultures of the whole district, nearly in the same manner as the disturbance created by a number of men running along the streets of a crowded town attracts the whole population to follow in their train."

The genus *neophron* may be regarded as equivalent in the Old World to *cathartes* in the New, the Egyptian vulture closely approximating in form,

habits, and relatively in the range of its habitat to the turkey vulture so ably described by Wilson and Audubon. Of the vultures of the Old World the Egyptian vulture is the smallest; it is, however, one of the most numerous, and especially abounds in Egypt and the adjacent provinces of Europe, Asia, and Africa; it has even been seen in Italy and Switzerland, and has once been killed in England. This circumstance occurred in 1825 at Klive, in Somersetshire; the specimen was that of an immature bird, probably not more than a year old; it was accompanied by a second individual, which was too wary to allow itself to be approached within gunshot. In Egypt the utility of these vultures in clearing the streets of filth of every description (a task which they undertake in common with the parish dogs) has been frequently noticed. Nor were the services of this bird less valued in ancient than in modern times; it was among the number of the sacred animals, and is often represented pretty accurately on the early monuments of Egypt. Hence its appellation of Pharaoh's chicken. A constant attendant on the caravan, as it pursues its way from town to town—an assiduous frequenter of the shambles—an industrious searcher for carrion, it merits, as far at least as its public utility is concerned, the regards of the whole community; nor are its services overlooked—if not now adored as a deity, it is at least esteemed as a benefactor.

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## RUINS OF A GREEK THEATRE AT SYRACUSE.

**T**HE engraving presents a partial view of some considerable remains of a Greek theatre at Neapolis, in Syracuse. It was hewn in a rock, and constructed with three ranges of seats separated by platforms or galleries, which continue without interruption all round, approached by staircases constructed at given intervals. This theatre was built at the boundaries of Neapolis, Tyche, and Acradina, overlooking the former city and commanding a view of the promontory of Plemmyrium; while from its back may be seen the singular excavations in the quarries of Neapolis, among others that which is called the Ear of Dionysius.

This once glorious and animated scene, where multitudes assembled to witness and appreciate the sublime conceptions of the dramatists of ancient Greece, presents, at the present time, a strong contrast to its former grandeur. The curious traveler or weary shepherd are now its only visitors; and the same spot which was formerly hallowed by the representation of the dramas of Æschylus and Euripides, now affords but a scanty pasturage for the flocks and herds of an ignorant peasantry.

The origin of the regular Greek drama is traced to Thespis and Saron, both natives of Attica. The germ of it was nothing more than a song in honor of Bacchus, accompanied by dancing. A goat was awarded as the prize of the singer. Thespis, on one of these occasions, first pointed out the dramatic path by introducing a second person, who recited some well known fable or history—called an episode—and relieved the monotony



of the choruses; while Susarion gave the first idea of comedy, by attacking the vices and follies of those who dwelt in cities, a species of satire peculiarly relished by the country people. These episodes, being a far more pleasing kind of entertainment than the odes in praise of Bacchus, (the dullness of which they were intended only to relieve,) gradually assumed so much consequence in the festivals, that it became a proverbial saying, to denote that which is nothing to the purpose,—“All this is nothing to Bacchus!”

The drama remained in its original form—merely a chorus and episode performed on an open stage or itinerary cart—until the great Æschylus, by the unaided force of his own genius, elevated the Grecian theatre from this undigested chaos to its “most high and palmy state.” It is fabled, that while asleep in a vineyard, Bacchus appeared to him in a dream and commanded him to write tragedies. His plays were acted upon a stationary stage—a humble wooden scaffolding. He also introduced a second person in the episode, and thus became the originator of *dialogue*. He employed mechanism for the stage, embellished it with scenes, and obviated the expedient of smearing the actors’ faces with wine- lees (which had been formerly adopted) by substituting masks. He also invented the cothurnus or buskin. These extraordinary efforts of combined genius, ingenuity, and perseverance, were hailed by the Athenians with delight, and from that time they became a dramatic people.

As the most brilliant period of the Greek drama was the time when her three great tragedians, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides flourished, a short sketch of their lives will afford some insight into the history of the ancient stage.

Æschylus was born about 525 years B. C., and distinguished himself at the battles of Marathon and Salamis. He wrote seventy-seven pieces, seven of which are yet extant. After enjoying the respect and admiration of his fellow-citizens for many years, both as a soldier and a poet, he retired to the court of Hiero, king of Syracuse; on account, according to some conjectures, of having been unsuccessful in the competition for the poetical prize with Sophocles; other authorities ascribe his removal to a charge of blasphemy having been brought against him for divulging some of the secrets of the Eleusinian Mysteries; but this could hardly have been the cause, for his three last plays, exhibited just before he left Athens, are extant, and contain nothing of the kind. Ancient historians are ever unwilling to attribute to their heroes an ordinary or common-place death; hence we are told that an eagle poising a huge tortoise in the air mistook the bald head of the venerable Æschylus for a stone, and, dropping the tortoise, ended the life of “The Father of Tragedy.”

Sophocles (born 495 B. C.) is said, but not on very good authority, to have been the son of a proprietor of a manufactory of cutlery. He was distinguished for the grace of his person and the elegance of his manners. Of the 120 tragedies attributed to him only seven remain; and these evince a riper judgement and a moral and intellectual taste of greater purity than either of his great compeers. The moral taste of Sophocles seems to have been of the most refined order, for the plays he has left inculcate truth, religion and virtue with peculiar earnestness. He lived to a very advanced age; and such was his devotion to the Muses, that, a little before he died, his sons, mistaking his extreme abstraction for insanity, petitioned the



RUINS OF A GREEK THEATRE.



judges to allow them to manage his estates. Sophocles, to refute the charge, merely read the first choric song from his 'Œdipus in Colonus' (which he had just completed,) and calmly asked if that was the work of a madman. The suit was instantly dismissed, and the poet retired amidst the warmest applauses. Scholiasts are at a loss for the precise cause of his death: some have choked him with a grape stone; others kill him with a transport of joy when bearing away his last poetical prize; and again it is said, that while reading aloud his own 'Antigone,' he began a speech of too great length for his weak lungs, and expired from the fatigue and the excitation.

Euripides was born 480 B. C., and first studied philosophy under Anaxagoras, who, advancing as a theory that the sun was a ball of fire, and maintaining the unity of God, was banished for blasphemy. The characters in his dramas often indulge in philosophical speculations, which give to the dramas a stiff, scholastic turn, usually reckoned not a little inconsistent with dramatic poetry. His early studies and close intimacy with Socrates may account for this peculiarity. This friendship did not fail to obtain for him many a reproach from the comic poets, who attributed the success of his works to the assistance of the great philosopher, and who accused him also of borrowing the scepticism and sophistry of the philosophers. Euripides was twice married; and it is said that the profligacy of his wives drove him to Macedon, where, walking in a wood in deep contemplation, he was torn to pieces by dogs. In Sicily, it would seem, Euripides was honored with an admiration amounting to enthusiasm: for when the army of Nicias was placed at the mercy of the Sicilians, those prisoners who could repeat passages from his tragedies were set at liberty.

Aristophanes has been elevated in the estimation of the critics so high above the other comic poets of Greece as to be the principal representative of the ancient classical comedy; he is indeed the only one of whom we have any perfect remains. The date of his birth is not exactly known, but in 427 B. C., he is called "almost a young lad." So captivating was his society, that it was eagerly sought by the most eminent men of his age. All historians agree that he was a sad votary to Bacchus: and this possibly caused much unhappiness in his private circumstances. His works, while they censure and satirize the vices of his age, are equally esteemed for dignity of style and graceful elegance of versification. He found a great admirer in St. Chrysostom, who kept a copy of his works under his pillow. We are unacquainted with the manner of his death.

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## NORWEGIAN PEASANTRY.

**N**ORWEGIAN peasants are perhaps better clothed and lodged, and possess more of the comforts and conveniences of life than can be found among the same class anywhere else, excepting in some parts of Switzerland. Their cottages are universally built of the solid trunks of pines, the interstices between which are closely stuffed with

moss. In the colder parts of the country they have double wooden walls. This additional protection renders them warm and secure against the blasts of winter. The roofs are generally formed of the same materials as the walls, but are covered and coated in a variety of manners. Sometimes they are loaded with a thick compact coating of pebbles—sometimes they are covered with large strips of the bark of the birch tree, which from its oily nature resists wet, and will last for years. In nearly all cases large fragments of rock are put upon the roof to prevent the whole from being blown away. It is not uncommon to see the roofs sowed with grass and bearing a luxurious crop, and in some instances trees of a tolerable size grow on the house-tops. In the districts of Hedemarken and Guldbrandsdalen, where the valleys are exceedingly fertile, and most industriously cultivated, the small farm-houses of the peasants exhibit a degree of neatness and comfort rarely to be met with in other countries. Every cottage window has its neat white curtains, made of coarse muslin or gauze; they are externally a good deal ornamented with carving, and the doors are generally painted with flowers done in very lively colors. The peasants all through Norway strew the floors of their bed-chambers with the young tops of the juniper tree, that diffuse a pleasant fragrance, which is said to invite sleep in the most agreeable manner. Their beds are generally in recesses that can be closed up like cupboards or presses, as is the case in many Scotch cottages.

Living as they do, for the most part, remote from towns and villages, in their little farms scattered among the mountains, or at the ends of long fiords, frequently at the distance of many miles from their nearest neighbors, the Norwegian peasants are obliged to turn their hands to everything, and from necessity and practice they generally obtain a skill and address in many mechanical arts that are altogether surprising. Mr. Twining and Sir Arthur de Capell Brooke mention organs, perfect in their parts, with a variety of stops, that had been made by common peasants; and they describe that class generally as being very expert in the art of carving in wood. The close grain and beautiful whiteness of the fir render their talents in this way very ornamental to their cottages, both within and without. Most of their table utensils are of the same wood, and prettily carved. Specimens of their spoons and ladles, which are sometimes executed in an ancient style of carving, might serve as patterns to our own artists and silversmiths. Most of them can execute little works in silver, copper, and iron, and make, or at least, keep in repair, their rustic clocks and watches; but every one of them is his own carpenter and joiner—his own tailor, shoe-maker, &c. Near Drontheim Mr. Twining saw some wooden bridges they had thrown across the river Guulelf, and its tributary streams, that were remarkable for the elegance of their construction and the span and boldness of their arches.

They are very fond of music, and make their own simple instruments. The most common of these, and one which is much used in all the pastoral districts, is called the *luur*. It is the same as the Alphorn of the Swiss mountaineers. Bishop Heber calls it a cow-pipe, and says it is an instrument five feet long, made out of the bark of the birch-tree, with a rude but not unmusical sound. One which Mr. Twining examined was made of two pieces of wood, of the wild pine, hollowed out and tied together with twigs of osier. He describes its notes as singularly soft and clear, but



their effect was no doubt heightened by scenery and circumstances. "I ran out of my rustic chamber," he says, "and directing my steps in the direction of those sweet sounds, I soon saw by the side of a cabin on the very margin of the lake, a young girl, holding in her hand a long wooden trumpet. The instrument had ceased at my approach, but at my request the young peasant again blew her *luur*, and produced notes still clearer and more harmonious. She executed with a remarkable facility several motives with frequent variations; but she often stopped, and every pause was filled by other distant sounds that appeared to come from a wooded cliff on the opposite side of the lake. I was not certain whether this was the echo of the strong and clear sounds I had heard, or a reply to them, made by some shepherd hid in the wood; but I presently discovered that the airs were different, and then I suspected that the maiden had come out of her cottage to reply with her horn to the notes sent across the waters by a brother or a friend." The peasants also make a sort of guitar with five strings. In the valley of Driostuen, where he says the greatest simplicity of manners reigns, "in some respects almost approaching Arcadian elegance," Heber found a girl playing on this instrument to call some calves up from pasture. After a little solicitation she let him hear several tunes, most of which were lively. On being asked to sing, she refused because it was Sunday; but on a sign from her father she ran to fetch her elder sisters, and a little brother, who began singing psalms very agreeably, till the old man and an elder son joined in the chorus, "which," says the Bishop, "they did with the true parish-clerk twang."

At their rare festivals and social meetings the peasants amuse themselves with singing and dancing. Many of their songs are patriotic, and sung to simple and touching airs. Their favorite dance, called the "Polsk," is generally kept up the whole of the night to the merry sound of the fiddle. "This," says Sir A. Brooke, "is the national dance of Norway, and is performed with a degree of spirit and enthusiasm I never before witnessed. The manner of dancing is this. Each of the men, taking his partner by the left hand, runs round the room at a pretty sharp kind of trot, rather than step. The lady, during this, occasionally whirls round by herself, with the same kind of movement as is practised by our young ladies in the quadrille, and her partner does the same. The Polsk dance then begins, which consists in a very rapid whirl, something similar to the waltz; but the motion far more violent, and the time entirely different. It is excessively difficult to perform, on account of the quickness of the whirl, and the necessity there is, nevertheless, of keeping the exact time. It is a highly amusing dance, and the eagerness with which the Norwegians hasten to join in it when the Polsk is played, shows their extreme fondness for it."

We regret to be obliged to add, that at these merry-makings, drunkenness—the vice of the north—is by no means uncommon, both sexes drinking a coarse kind of brandy to excess. They are, however, very good-natured in their cups; quarreling or fighting, which too generally attend such carousings, rarely or never take place with them, but all passes off in perfect mirth and good humor. The occasions, too, are rare, only occurring once a year, on the feast of St. John, and at some betrothal or wedding. Couples are generally betrothed several years before the marriage takes place.

Among their common amusements in winter is wolf-hunting, which is

not merely a pastime, but a useful and necessary operation to keep the country clear of those ravenous animals, which swarm in many parts. One of their methods is very droll:—parties go out in sledges, having a little pig in each sledge; when they get among the woods and rocks, they tread upon its tail, or pinch it, to make the pig squeak; this noise presently attracts the wolves, that sometimes rush out in such troops that even good shots are in danger. They also hunt the bears, which are numerous in many parts of Norway; and they follow up this sport with remarkable spirit and address. The bears do a deal of mischief, not only killing cattle, but destroying corn: they rarely attack men. At all seasons the shepherds in the mountains are followed by large dogs, something like the Newfoundland species, armed with collars set with iron spikes, to protect them against the wolves, that frequently attack them, and endeavor to seize them by the throat. The bears, on the contrary, usually fly from the dogs.

In the long winter season, when hill and vale are covered with snow, and the rivers and lakes frozen over, they make distant journeys in sledges, going with extraordinary rapidity, and straight forward, like the flight of the crow, instead of being obliged, as in summer time, to proceed circuitously round the heads of their rivers and lakes, or to wait on the shores to be slowly ferried over them. By the usual summer route it is nearly 400 miles from Christiana to Drontheim—by the winter route the distance is reduced nearly one-half, and this is performed with inconceivable velocity over lake and mountain, the traveler vying in speed with the troops of hungry wolves that follow his track. Another and a more independent and almost equally rapid way of traveling at that season is by skating. The *skies* of the Norwegians are very different from our skates, being, indeed, a union of the skate and snow-shoe. They are made of a hard wood, and are from six to eight feet long by six inches broad: the left *skie* is shorter than the right, to enable the skater to turn more quickly in wheeling. The feet are firmly fixed in them at about the middle of the *skie*. The skater holds in his hand a long staff, with which he directs his course, and accelerates it occasionally by pushing it against the snow. Underneath, the *skies* are covered with seal-skin, or pieces of a rough boar's hide, the hairs of which being turned backwards give a hold on the snow, which is necessary in ascending mountains. It is on the level ground—still more on the clear ice of the lakes—but most of all on the steep descents of the mountains, that play is made with the *skies*, and a rapidity of motion produced which, in the last case, may be compared to the headlong speed of a cataract or an avalanche. When the snow is in good condition, the peasants do not hesitate to descend the steepest precipices in this manner. Mr. Twining says, that the use of the *skies* is familiar to every Norwegian, without distinction of age or sex; that it is upon them the dispersed inhabitants of isolated cottages repair in winter time to church, traversing plains, hills, and arms of the sea, and saving at times three or four leagues of the distance they are obliged to travel at other seasons.

But the most striking circumstance connected with the Norwegian *skie*, is its adoption by a whole regiment of militia, raised among the peasantry and the miners of Röras, who are called *Skjelobere*, or Regiment of Skaters. "Two battalions," says Bishop Heber, "of about 600 men, stationed in the north and south of Norway, are drilled in the winter on skates; these men are only called out twice a year, but they have frequent private drills



for recruits. When they exercise in skates they have their rifles slung, and carry a staff in their hands, flattened at the end to prevent its sinking into the snow, and to assist them in the leaps they are sometimes compelled to take when going down hill (which we were told they do with wonderful rapidity) over such obstacles as obstruct their progress. The only difference in their method of drawing up is, that in winter they allow between the files room to turn in the skates, which they do by changing the right foot by an extraordinary motion, which would seem to dislocate the ancle." To this information Sir A. de Capell Brooke adds—

"The *Skjelobere* have frequently been employed with great success against the enemy in the wars with Sweden. Indeed, an army would be completely in the power of even a handful of these troops, which, stopped by no obstacle, and swift as the wind, might attack it on all points; while the depth of the snow, and the nature of the country, would not only make any pursuit impossible, but almost deprive them of the means of defence, the *Skjelobere* still hovering round them like swallows, skimming the icy surface, and dealing destruction upon their helpless adversaries." In summer the *Skjelobere* have nothing to distinguish them from a common rifle corps; their uniform is light green.

Like most mountaineers inhabiting wild and romantic regions, and leading solitary lives, the peasants of Norway are rather superstitious. They believe in several evil spirits, called by the general name of *Neiss*, that frequent lonely places, and appear under a variety of forms; some of them, like "the spectre hound in Mann," show themselves in the shape of a large, rough, white dog, with very long ears. The lake of Dillingen, according to their tales, is the favorite residence of Noeck, the kelpie of Norway, though he sometimes shows himself in other parts of the country. He is described as a being of great malevolence and strength, that appears in the form of a large black horse. Should a bold peasant succeed in bridling him he is said to become a very useful animal, and to serve his master faithfully. This odd information was given to Heber by an English servant, married in the country, who added that a relation of his wife had told him seriously that he had himself seen Noeck in harness, quietly drawing a plough; but the moment the bridle was taken off, he galloped away with prodigious violence and noise, plunged into the lake and disappeared! Of fairies, the most pleasing part of a fanciful creation, they seem to have no notion; they apply the old Gothic name of *Dvergar*, by which fairies were universally known in the north, to merely mortal dwarfs. They have a confident belief in presages of death by supernatural lights and mystic noises heard at the dead of night. They have a great dread of witchery and sorcery, and in their apprehensions the poor Finns, or Laplanders, retain their old reputation; and are still potent diviners and sorcerers, that can call up spirits by the beat of drum, and kill a man by shooting an arrow towards him, though he be a hundred leagues off. The peasants are not yet quite convinced that these destructive little quadrupeds, the lemmings, which appear so suddenly, are not rained down from heaven; and the fishermen on the coast still believe in the existence of the kraken, or measureless sea serpent, which many of them vow they have seen with their own eyes.

The costume of the peasantry varies in different parts of Norway; nearly every district has a dress of its own, and while some of these are pictu



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resque, the very variety is a source of pleasure to the eye of the traveler. It is evident that several of these dresses have undergone no change of fashion for centuries. Von Buch was at first astonished at the apparition of young people in the garb of his great grandfathers and great grandmothers; and De Capell Brooke was equally surprised one evening, when he found himself suddenly surrounded at a mountain village by a number of pretty girls who had just rushed out from the dance, wearing very high-heeled shoes, and waists that would have vied in length with those of four centuries ago. In some parts the women have their hair *snooded* in a large knot on the crown of the head, and in fair weather wear nothing over it but a very white and clean handkerchief, tastefully arranged. In other districts the hair is quite concealed under a close lace cap, covered with a quantity of ribands.

Mr. Twining, whose journey was chiefly directed in search of the picturesque, and who looked at these things with the eye of an artist, gives some notes on costume, that will be rendered more intelligible by his designs, which we have copied here. He says it is in Ourdal that the dress of the peasantry begins to have a picturesque and national character. The men wear a very short vest, and a large bonnet, sometimes blue, but more generally red. Their hair is light brown, and worn very long. Some of the smart young villagers adorn their jackets with double rows of metal buttons, with embroidery, and silver clasps. They all have a leather girdle round the waist, in which they generally carry a large knife, called a *dolkknif*. With this *dolkknif* they carve in wood, and perform many other offices. According to Pontoppidan, a Norwegian clergyman who wrote a history of his country in the early part of the last century, the peasants were then very quarrelsome, and often used the *dolkknif* in their disputes. Indeed, he says that this was so much the case, that a wife was always supposed to carry her husband's shroud about her whenever they went to a wedding feast, or other merry-making; and that in consequence of frequent stabbing, the custom of carrying knives was forbidden. It now appears, however, from a variety of authorities, that their temper is improved, and that, although they carry the knife, such a bad use of it is exceeding rare.

Generally speaking, the women of Ourdal have no other *coiffure* than a long and beautiful head of hair, which at times is disposed in two large tresses that fall behind, at others left loose and unbound to float round the neck and cover the shoulders with its thick curls. They generally wear a camisole, or vest, of a gray color, which descends a little below the waist, and is buttoned in front; when this is not used they wear long white sleeves, and a very small corset, which rises behind between the shoulders. This latter is not unlike the well known costume of the female peasantry of the Canton of Berne, in Switzerland; but instead of the piece of black velvet round the neck used by the Burnoises, the fair Norwegians wear a sort of cravat, precisely the same as that worn by the men. In Gulbrandsdalen the women wear enormous buckles, which make a clinking noise as they walk, and such high-heeled shoes, that they have quite a gigantic appearance. Their dress consists of a loose chemise, coarse but clean, which is tied round the throat, and of one dark colored petticoat, without stays or anything else. But in cold weather they put on a camisole, or waistcoat without sleeves, made exactly like that of a man. Their hair, *snooded*

round with tape, and tied back from the forehead, falls over the neck and shoulders in long ringlets. The dress of the mountaineers in the neighborhood of Bergen is exceedingly picturesque. The women are distinguished by the variety of their head-dresses, which serve as a sure index to the villages they belong to. Some wear a large white handkerchief, which is drawn out into wings on either side—some wear a high singularly shaped cap—others wrap their hair in a sort of turban, made of red cotton or red flannel; the vest is generally of a bright red color—the corset yellow, and most of them use a girdle round the waist, ornamented in front with a clasp and plate of copper. The men in many parts wear long thick beards. A coarse plaid cloth, like the Scotch, manufactured by the peasants themselves, is in pretty general use, and the men also wear garters of very lively colors tied in large bows at the knees.

In other and higher essentials—in language, manners, feelings and intelligence, the Norwegians bear a striking resemblance to the Scotch and the people of the north of England.

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## PALERMO.

**P**ALERMO, the capital of the island of Sicily, is beautifully situated on a gulf five miles in length, and at the extremity of a natural amphitheatre formed by lofty mountains. The approach by sea is magnificent. Monte Pellegrino, lofty and picturesque in the extreme, stands over a narrow but fertile plain, and seems posted there as a giant to protect the fair city, which in part stretches along the curving shores of the bay, and in part retires inland on some very gentle declivities, that are backed everywhere by pleasant hills, groves and gardens. The force of language and metaphor has almost been exhausted to find expressions to describe the beautiful plain round Palermo. The town itself is not altogether unworthy of the site. It is regularly built, has some fine streets, and, taken, on the whole, an air of elegance and solidity. Two principal streets, each about a mile in length, cross each other at right angles, and divide the city into four pretty equal quarters. At both ends of these two streets there is an ornamental *porta*, or gate, and at the point of their intersection in the middle of the town there is a handsome octangular square, called Piazza Vigliena, or Quattro Cantonera, from the centre of which there is a fine view of the two great streets, with the gates that terminate them. The northern gate, called Porta Felice, towards the suburb of the Marina and the sea, is richly ornamented, and has a very graceful effect. Besides this central square there are several other piazze, ornamented with obelisks and with fountains; the largest of these squares are, Il Piano della Marina, a space in front of the royal palace, and another near the senate house, which is occupied by a fine large fountain. The number of these public ornaments and luxuries, and the abundant supply of water, are immense advantages, and fully appreciated during the intense



heats of the summer. Most of the houses in the good part of the town have fountains, and water is conveyed even to the second and third stories.

The two great streets are well paved, and have *trot-toirs*, or side pavements, those excellent provisions for the pedestrian which are too commonly neglected in continental towns. The houses are lofty, and nearly uniform in height; and were the two streets somewhat broader, they might be classed among the finest in the south of Europe: but, as it is, the Cassero is broader, longer, and more regular than the famed Corso at Rome. Sicilian architecture, however, will not stand a comparison with the Roman. The movement, the activity, the constant animation of these streets, with the exception of an hour or two in the middle of the day in summer, when people retire to take their siesta, are exceedingly striking, especially so to a traveler who comes from the interior of the country, or from any other town of the island, where everything seems languid and dull. Indeed, Palermo is the only city in Sicily that does not convey a melancholy idea of decay and depopulation. The lesser streets for the most part run parallel with the two main ones, and afford a ready access to them at all points. Some of the lower parts of the town are filthy, and excessively disorderly. There is a particular district, which is (or rather *was*) occupied by the *conciariotti*, or tanners and leather dressers, that has obtained a bad name in history; for at every revolution, riot, or insurrection, its inhabitants distinguished themselves by their ferocity; whilst, even in peaceful ordinary times, it was scarcely safe to pass through their streets, where an officer or police dared not show his face, and where criminals were harbored with impunity. It was, in short, a kind of Alsatia, as described by Walter Scott in his "Fortunes of Nigel." The *conciariotti*, at whose name the quiet citizens used to tremble, were incorporated and bound together by by-laws of their own making; besides which, they enjoyed as a body certain privileges and impunities *ab antico*. To offend one member was to make a quarrel with the whole nest of hornets, whose stings were sure and terrible. During the revolutionary proceedings of 1820, they barbarously massacred several of the Sicilian nobility; but had their ardor and nationality been properly directed, the Neapolitan army would never have entered Palermo. Since that time their district and dens have been well searched and cleared, their privileges utterly abolished, and the *conciariotti* seem to have become about as good subjects as the rest of the Sicilian populace.

The city is surrounded by an old, weak, and broken wall; some of the bastions are occupied by gardens, and others have been wholly cut away to increase the breadth of the Marina, a beautiful drive and promenade on the sea-shore. The port, however, is rather well defended by the citadel, Fort la Galita, and other works. There is a strong mole-head battery at the end of the mole, or pier, which forms the convenient port, and is in itself a noble work, running from the arsenal, for the length of a quarter of a mile, into nine or ten fathoms depth of water.

In the interior of Palermo one is continually reminded of the Saracens and the Normans, who successively held possession of Sicily, and whose styles of architecture, sometimes separate, and sometimes mixed, still survive them, and give a peculiarly characteristic air to the city which is hardly to be found anywhere else. In the royal palace, a spacious building, now the residence of the viceroys of Sicily, the Saracenic or Arabic, and



THE CITY OF PALERMO.



the Norman architectures are blended together in a most singular manner, and predominate over the whole, though modern additions and alterations—the mixing of the new with the old—give the edifice a patchwork sort of appearance. Attached to it is the beautiful little church of St. Peter, which, with its cryptic or underground chapel and superb mosaics, is quoted as one of the most perfect specimens extant of Saracenic taste and magnificence. In the armory of the palace they show the silver-hilted sword of the brave Norman chieftain Count Ruggiero (Roger), who took Palermo from the Saracens in 1073, and became the independent sovereign of all Sicily. In the old cathedral which was built during the twelfth century by Archbishop Walter, an Englishman, there are many, and some of them very fine features, of the Oriental style. In one part the roof is formed by a succession of small domes, precisely like those found on the mosques of Cairo and Constantinople. Some of the windows are small, with the low heavy Norman arch; but others spring up lightly and beautifully, and terminate in the form of a sharp arrow-head. The exterior is rich in moulding and tracery; and though, both within and without, this ancient cathedral has suffered much from injudicious modern alterations, it is still a picturesque and most interesting object. The nave is supported by eighty-four magnificent columns of Sicilian granite, which resembles the Oriental granite. There are some sarcophagi in the church, made of the finest red porphyry, which contain the bodies of princes of the Norman and other dynasties. In 1781, one of these, which enclosed the body of Frederic of Aragon, who became king of the island a few years after the fearful massacre of the Sicilian vespers, and the expulsion of the French, was opened, in presence of many persons, when it was observed that, although the body had lain there for 144 years, it was perfect and entire. It was clothed in a triple imperial dress, all richly ornamented with gold, pearls, and embroidery.

Besides the old cathedral, the churches of San Cataldo, San Giovanni Eremito, Martorana, and some others, are of the Saracenic or Norman eras. The Saracenic style, again, shows itself in many of the palaces. That of Ziza, outside of the town, which was once the habitation of Mussulman princes, is in almost perfect preservation, as well as a small adjoining mosque. The building is of hewn stone, with light airy arches, icicle-like pendants, mullions, and tracery. Within the palace there are fountains, courts, and arcades, that remind one of the splendid ruins of the Alhambra in Granada. There is a view from a terrace so exquisitely beautiful as almost to justify the inscription made upon it, which says, “Europe is the glory of the world,—Italy of Europe,—Sicily of Italy,—and the country hereabout of Sicily.” The Zizi palace is still inhabited, and was, a few years ago, the residence of Prince Sandoval.

Some of the public buildings of Palermo are imposing from the breadth of front and extent. The great Custom House in the Piazza Marina, was formerly the office of the Inquisition. That dreadful institution was finally abolished by the enlightened viceroy, the Marquis of Carraccioli, in 1782; but as late as 1724 it sent two victims to the flames, a nun and a monk, who were both insane, and who had previously suffered twenty-five years of imprisonment, the rack, and all the tortures employed by that merciless brotherhood. Twenty-six other prisoners of the Inquisition were dragged to the spot to witness the frightful execution.

The Jesuits' College is a vast and magnificent edifice, commodiously divided into many wings and compartments. When Sicily was constitutionalized, in 1812, under the auspices of the British Cabinet, the parliament held its sittings within the walls of this building. Though only in their political infancy, the chambers did some good during their brief existence, which ended only to the year 1815. They abolished the use of torture, and of those infamous dungeons called *damusi*, which they should have blocked up and wholly destroyed, and so have obliterated one of the disgraces of the city, while they removed the ready temptation offered to some tyrant who might employ them again. The *piombi* and *pozzi* of Venice were scarcely more dreadful than the *damusi* of Palermo: these were subterranean dungeons, dark and damp, about six feet square, and paved with pointed sharp stones, that cut and wore away the flesh; the prisoners thrown into them were loaded with chains that bore them to the ground—their flinty bed,—for they were not allowed so much as a little straw to lie upon. Once a day a piece of bread and a cup of water were lowered down to them. If a culprit could endure this torture for forty days without making any confession he was dismissed as innocent; but, in general, a much shorter time was sufficient to undermine the strongest constitution, as the little air confined in those narrow underground cells soon became intolerably bad.

All the antiquities of Palermo are of the middle ages; everything beyond the Saracenic and Norman eras has strangely disappeared. There is not a vestige of the splendid theatres, temples, and stoas of the Panormus (Palermo) of the Romans; these have all been swept away, and every fragment of them, except a few inscriptions and broken statues which are preserved in the senate-house. The celebrated ancient port, which penetrated into the very heart of the city, and bore vessels to the doors of the inhabitants, has been entirely blocked up by successive earthquakes and cannot be traced. These convulsions of nature, which occur frequently in Sicily, have no doubt had a large share in the work of destruction, but they have not done all that work. Fazello, a native historian who wrote about a century and a half ago, indignantly censures and laments the overthrow of some most ancient edifices that took place in his days. These, he says, were not laid low by the injuries of time, nor by the enemy, but cast down by his fellow-citizens and an infamous decree of the senate.

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## THE MARKET CROSS OF CHICHESTER.

**C**HICHESTER, like Chester, preserves its walls; and like that city too, it exhibits, in the manner in which it lies, and the direction of its principal streets, undoubted evidence of having been a Roman settlement or encampment. Chichester stands on elevated ground, between six and seven miles from the sea-coast, in the western division of Sussex. It does not contain anything remarkable, beyond the Cathedral,





THE MARKET CROSS—CHICHESTER.

with its finely proportioned steeple; its old Town Hall; the old palace of the bishops of Chichester; and the Market Cross, of which a view is given. The walls, which are about a mile and a half in circuit, will, as long as they are preserved, be interesting to the antiquarian, and to all who wish to see actual evidence of what walled cities were in times passed away, and also to remark the mode in which Roman encampments were laid out. Chichester is believed to have been the Roman Regnum, or capital of the Regni; and it is supposed that the Emperor Vespasian resided here about the year A. D. 50, and that Claudius erected a temple within the city. After the Romans left Britain it was occupied by the Saxons, from one of whom, a famous leader or chieftain, named Cissa, it was, (at least so it is conjectured) called *Cissan Ceaster*, the city or castle of Cissa, and subsequently Chichester.

The Market Cross stands in the center of the city, at the intersection of the two principal streets, which run east and west, north and south. It was intended to shelter persons who brought articles to the market. A large central column, from which spring numerous bold ribs, beneath a vaulted roof, and eight pier buttresses, support the superincumbent paneled wall, parapet, pinacles, and flying buttresses. Shields, charged with the arms of the bishop, named Story, impaling those of the reigning monarch, are attached to the buttresses; whilst the walls between the arches and the outer ogee mouldings are ornamented with sculptured mitres. These mouldings terminate with large and elaborate finials, which serve as brackets to pedestals in niches, which are surmounted by fine canopies. Three inscriptions on tablets fill as many niches, whilst large clockdials are inserted above them. The clock was presented by "Dame Elizabeth Farington, as an hourly memento of her good will," in 1724.

## THE GLUTTON.

**A**MONG the plantigrade feræ, to which group it belongs, no species has been so celebrated as the glutton, the bear itself not excepted; but, as is too often the case, its celebrity has depended rather upon exaggerated accounts of its habits and manners, than upon a knowledge of its real character. Stripped, however, of all false coloring, its history is interesting; and the more so, inasmuch as it is little known.

The glutton (*Gulo Luscus*) is a native of the northern regions, both of the old and new world. It is found in Sweden, Russia, and Siberia, as well as in the northern parts of America, from the coasts of Labrador and Davis Straits to the shores of the Pacific; and it even visits the islands of the Polar Sea, its bones having been found in Melville Island, nearly in latitude 75°.

The first writer who has described this animal is Olaus Magnus. "Among all animals," he says, "which are regarded as insatiably voracious, the glutton in the northern parts of Sweden has received an express appel-



lation, being called, in the language of the country, *Jerff*, and in German, *Wilfras*. In the Slavonian language its name is *Rossomaka*, in allusion to its voracity; in Latin, however, it is only known by the fictitious name of *Gulo*, from its habit of gorging." In North America, we may add, it is termed *Wolverene*, and *Quickehatch* (a corruption of its Cree Indian name). The French Canadians call it *Carcajou*, (also a corruption of the Cree term *okee-coo-haw-gew*).

The glutton is, indeed, a voracious animal, but by no means formidable to man or the larger beasts, though in proportion to its size its strength is very great. Its general appearance is that of a bear in miniature; its head is broad and compact, and rounded off on every side to form the nose. The ears are short and rounded, and almost hidden among the fur; the back is arched, the tail short and bushy, the limbs thick, short, and very muscular: the whole contour of the animal indicates vast strength, but only a small share of activity. In walking, the glutton places the entire sole of the feet on the ground, and imprints a track on the snow or soft earth, so like that of a bear, that it may be easily mistaken for it. The Indians, however, at once distinguish the tracks by the length of the steps. The general color of the fur, which is long and full, and much like that of a black bear, is dark brown, a paler band passing along each side, and uniting on the crupper; there are also a few irregular whitish markings on the throat and chest. The length of the head and body is two feet six inches, of the tail (with its fur) ten inches.

Slow in its movements, and destitute of activity, it makes up by perseverance and industry for every deficiency, and, at a steady pace, pursues its prey for miles,—hunts out weak or dying animals, and destroys hares, marmots, and birds, which it seizes unawares. Buffon, relying on the accounts of Olaus Magnus, Isbrand, and others, has contributed to render current the statement—which many later naturalists have considered not incredible—that it has recourse to the most subtle artifice in order to surprise its victims; and that it lurks in the branches of trees until the reindeer approaches to browse beneath, or the elk to take repose, when it throws itself upon them with unerring rapidity, fixes its strong claws in their skin, and begins at once to tear and devour, till the wretched sufferer, exhausted by pain and loss of blood, sinks down and miserably dies,—when it devours the carcass at its ease, leaving nothing but the skin and skeleton. Gmelin, in his account of his journey through Siberia, after quoting the statement of Isbrand, adds,—“This address of the glutton in managing to seize animals by surprise is confirmed by all the hunters.” \* \* “Although it feeds on all animals, living or dead, it prefers the reindeer. It lies in wait for large animals, as a robber on the highway, and it also surprises them as they lie asleep.” He also adds, that it visits the traps and snares of the fur hunters of Siberia, for the sake of the animals taken in them; and that the hunters of the isatis (*Cossac fox*) complain bitterly of the mischief which the glutton does. This description of the injury suffered by the fur hunters, from its depredations, in a great measure tallies with that of Dr. Richardson, who, in allusion to the glutton, or wolverene, of the northern regions of America, says, that it is “a carnivorous animal, which feeds chiefly upon the carcasses of beasts that have been killed by accident. It has great strength, and annoys the natives by destroying their hoards of provisions, and demolishing their marten traps. It is so suspicious that it

THE GLUTTON AND REINDEER.





will seldom enter a trap itself, but, beginning behind, pulls it to pieces, scatters the logs of which it is built, and then carries off the bait. It feeds also on meadow mice, marmots, and other *Rodentia*, and occasionally, on *disabled quadrupeds* of a larger size. I have seen one chasing an American hare, which was at the same time harrassed by a snowy owl. It resembles the bear in its gait, and is not fleet, but very industrious, and no doubt feeds well, as it is generally fat. It is much abroad in the winter, and the track of its journey, in a single night, may often be traced for many miles. From the shortness of its legs, it makes its way over the snow with difficulty; but when it falls upon the beaten track of a marten trapper, it will pursue it for a long way. Mr. Graham observes, that the wolverenes are extremely mischievous, and do more damage to the small-fur trade than all the other rapacious animals conjointly. They will follow the marten hunter's path round a line of traps extending forty, fifty, or sixty miles, and render the whole unserviceable, merely to come at the baits, which are generally the head of a partridge, or a bit of dried venison. They are not fond of the martens themselves, but never fail of tearing them in pieces, or of burying them in the snow by the side of the path, at a considerable distance from the trap. Drifts of snow often conceal the repositories thus made of the martens from the hunter, in which case they furnish a regale to the hungry fox, whose sagacious nostril guides him unerringly to the spot. Two or three foxes are often seen following the wolverene for this purpose."

Of all animals on which the wolverene habitually preys, the beaver is said to be the one which suffers the most from his ferocity, and this the more especially as that aquatic animal is slow on land, and cannot escape pursuit. It is only, however, during the summer that the beaver thus falls a victim to its enemy; for in the winter the beaver is safely housed, the walls of its habitation not only being thick and solid, but frozen as hard as stone,—defying the attempt of any animal, by means of its claws, however strong, to effect an entrance.

With respect to the stratagem, so universally attributed to the glutton, of lurking on the branches of moss-grown trees, and even of enticing the reindeer to approach by throwing down the lichen on which this animal feeds, Dr. Richardson observes, that it is not resorted to by the American wolverene, and he appears to disbelieve the account. Desmarest, however, adopts it as an authenticated fact, relying on the authority of the early writers. There are probably some details connected with this belief which would explain its apparent exaggeration. That the glutton may steal upon the reindeer asleep, or attack weak or dying deer, or young fawns, is very probable; but that it is capable of such artifice and address, as are implied in the account alluded to, requires to be better authenticated before it can be received as truth. Gmelin himself throws a doubt upon it, for one of those animals having advanced into the midst of a party of laborers, with grave and deliberate steps, as if stupidly indifferent to danger, and having suffered itself to be despatched without resistance, he adds, "After the tales which the hunters of Siberia for many years had told me of the address of this animal, in supplying by stratagem the agility denied it by nature, and in avoiding the snares of man, I was very much astonished to see this come deliberately, and as if on purpose, in the midst of us, to seek its own destruction."

When attacked by other animals, the glutton fights desperately, and

three stout dogs are said to be scarcely its match. Isbrand says, that a Waivode, who kept one tame, threw it one day into the water, and set upon it a couple of dogs, when it immediately seized one by the head, and held it under water till it was drowned. It does not, however, defend itself so energetically against man, from whose presence it usually endeavors to escape, and is easily despatched by a hunter, with no other weapon than a stick. In Lapland the glutton is common, and Scheffer, in his "History of Lapland," informs us that it not only preys upon wild animals but commits havoc among such as are domesticated, and even among fish.

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## HEVER CASTLE.

**H**EVER CASTLE affords a good example of those residences which arose out of the disturbed state of society during the early periods of history after the Conquest, which suffered a partial dilapidation during the conflicts of the factions of York and Lancaster, and once more rose, in less martial forms, under the governments of Elizabeth and James. It was in the reign of Edward III. that William de Hevre obtained the king's license to "embattle his manor-house." It consists of "a castle," to which a quadrangular house is attached, the whole surrounded by a moat, beyond which several outbuildings, now used as barns, were arranged to meet the wants of extra visitors, and the many festivals, religious and secular, of those "good old times." The elevation or front of the castle is composed of a central keep, pierced by a gate, crowned by strongly projecting machicolations, and flanked by two square towers. The face of the keep is decorated with some well executed tracery, of much later date than the massive walls on which they repose. The gate is of vast strength, and seems to have been the point, of all others, on which the architect bestowed the utmost resources of his defensive skill. First, a deep-browed door-way is passed, defended by a strong portcullis and two thick oaken doors, barred, bolted, and studded with iron knobs; immediately behind these are two guard rooms, in which a dozen men-at-arms might long dispute the passage of a breach. A broad avenue of solid masonry succeeds, and leads straight forward to a second portcullis, and these again to a third; occupying altogether the whole depth of the castle. Most of these works are in a good state of preservation; in two of the portcullises, the original doors, wickets, knockers, gratings, still remain. Over the external gate, immediately under the battlements, about a dozen machicolations project boldly forward, from which red hot lead or other missiles might have been discharged on the heads of assailants. These gates lead the visitor into a spacious court-yard, formed on three sides by the house, which is built in the very early Tudor style, and on the fourth by the castle. The court is neatly paved with red bricks fancifully disposed. The fronts of the house are stuccoed, but were formerly richly embossed and painted with quaint patterns. The entrance to the apartments is usually made by the back





HAVER CASTLE.

CONWAY CASTLE.





front, through what was once the great dining-hall, but which is now used as a kitchen. This is a most interesting place, very spacious, being 90 feet by 30. It contains many fine specimens of old tables, safes, presses, &c., part of the original "Bullen" furniture. The walls appear formerly to have been covered with arms, and decorated with antlers and other memorials of the chase.

Leaving the staircase, several small anterooms are passed, paneled throughout with oak, and at length a door is reached at which the guide pauses, and with much solemnity announces the threshold of Anne Boleyn's bedroom! This is really an interesting apartment, beautifully paneled, and contains the original family chairs, tables, muniment-box, and Anne's bed, a very heavy affair, dressed with yellow damask hangings. A door in one of the corners opens into a strong dark cell, in which Anne was imprisoned by Henry, and where by his order it was attempted to starve her to death. The cell was probably a sort of strong cupboard for plate and valuables. In this apartment, several anterooms succeed, and the suite terminates in a grand gallery occupying the whole length of the building, in which the judicial meetings and social gatherings of the ancient family were held. It is about 150 feet in length by 20 feet in width, with a vaulted roof and paneled throughout with rudely carved oak. On one side, placed at equal distances apart, are three recesses; the first, having a flight of three steps, is fitted up with elbowed benches, where the lord of the castle in old times held his courts, and where Henry is said, on the occasion of his visits, to have received the congratulations of the gentry. A second was occupied by the fire; and the third was used for a quiet corner by the old folks, while the younger ones frolicked through the mazes of a dance. At one end of this gallery a trap-door leads to a dark chamber, called the dungeon, in which the family are believed to have sheltered themselves in "time of trouble;" although it is manifest that the height of the rooms, compared with that of the building, must have betrayed its existence to even a careless observer.

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## CONWAY CASTLE, WALES.

**C**ONWAY is a very singular and interesting old town, situated on the declivity of a hill sloping towards the estuary of the river from which it receives its name. From without it is extremely beautiful; the ancient walls and towers are still entire, and give it, especially as seen from the eastern side of the river, where the whole circuit of them is seen at once, a most antique and warlike look. Neither are the streets wanting in their share of picturesque effects. Of the gates the handsomest is that on the Llanrwst road. The castle, however, is apt to divert the attention from these minor attractions. The walls and towers are in a very tolerable preservation. None of the staircases are perfect; but a convenient ladder



PONT Y FAIR.



gives easy access, even for ladies, to the top of the walls, of which a complete circuit may be made, so as to obtain a correct idea of the plan of the building and of its external defences. They also command fine and varied views of the surrounding country. Of the building itself the best views are those from the mound beyond the bridge, and from the creek on the south side of the castle, which is the one given in the first engraving. On that side there is a curious proof of the strength of the cement used in building the edifice. In quarrying for stone in the last century the foundation of one of the round towers was so undermined that it gave way, and about half the circumference of the base has fallen in; the upper part of the structure, upheld by the tenacity of its parts, remaining perfect. The chasm shows like an irregular arch.

Near Conway is the singular bridge called Pont y Pair, consisting of five arches, based on the bare rocky bed of the stream. Beneath it the river forms a cascade of no considerable height, but very striking from its rapidity and volume. In general one arch is amply sufficient for the passage of the waters, which have excavated a deep and narrow chasm in the rock. But the breadth of the bare rock testifies to the extent of the stream in time of flood; and at such seasons the rush of waters is said to be most grand and imposing.

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## ICE PALACE, ST. PETERSBURG

**T**HE beautiful lines in "Cowper's Task," though much more poetical than exact, are descriptive of that "most magnificent and mighty freak," the ice palace of the Empress Anne, which was erected at St. Petersburg in January, 1740. The following account is taken from a detailed description of the edifice published at St. Petersburg in the year 1741, when all the circumstances relating to this extraordinary building were fresh in the memory of the writer.

After a pretty lengthy dissertation on the effects of frost and the qualities of ice, which has little to do with the matter in hand, the writer proceeds to panegyryze the noble Alexis Danilovitch Tatishchev, who originated the design of the Ice Palace, the Empress Anne who furnished the funds, and the Palace itself, which merited, he says, to be placed among the stars, to be transported to Saturn, the temperature of which distant planet would have been fitted, the writer thinks, to give it permanency.

The intention of the projectors of the Ice Palace was to build it upon the river Neva itself, in order to be as near as possible to the source from which the ice was to be procured. It was accordingly begun upon that river towards the end of the year 1739; but, says the author, "the ice of this river which sustains the weight of many thousand armed men; which supports great cannons and mortars, frequently discharged; which did not break under the immense weight of a fortress of ice and snow, attacked and defended according to all the rules of war, and taken at last sword in

hand (which was performed seven years ago in a show represented before the Empress); this ice, I say, began to give way under the walls of the palace as soon as they were raised to some considerable height; whence it was easily concluded that it could not support the weight of the whole when completed." In consequence of this failure it was resolved to begin again, and to build the palace on land: a site was accordingly selected between the Fortress of the admiralty and the new winter residence of the Empress, and the work was begun with the advantage of the experience in ice building gained by the attempt on the river.

The manner of building was very simple; the purest and most transparent ice was selected; it was cut from the Neva in large blocks, which were then squared with rule and compass, and carved out with all the regular architectural embellishments. When each block was ready, it was raised to its destined place by cranes and pulleys, and an instant before letting it down upon the block which was to support it, a little water was thrown between the two, the upper block was immediately lowered, the water froze, and the two became literally one. The whole building appeared to be and really was all of one single piece, "producing without contradiction an effect infinitely more beautiful than if it had been built of the most costly marble, its transparency and bluish tint giving it rather the appearance of a precious stone."

The dimensions of the building were in English measure, length 56 feet, depth 18 feet, height including the roof, 21 feet. This is the body of the house; the palisading was 87 feet in length and 36 in width, and the actual length of the front view, including the pyramids at the corners, was 114 feet.

When the work was completed, the public were allowed an unrestricted passage through every part of the building. This at first caused a good deal of confusion, which was however obviated by surrounding the entrance with a wooden railing, and stationing police officers who allowed only a certain number of persons to pass in at one time.

The façade was plain, being merely divided into compartments by pilasters. In each division there was a window, the frame-work of which was painted to represent green marble: it was remarked that the ice at the low temperature which prevailed took the paint perfectly well. The panes were formed of slabs of ice, as transparent and smooth as plate glass: at night these windows were generally lighted up, and most commonly grotesque transparencies painted on canvass were placed in the windows. The effect of the illumination is said to have been peculiarly fine, as the light appeared not only at the windows, but from the transparency of the material, the whole palace was filled with a delicate pearly light. The centre division projected, and appeared to be a door; but it was in fact a large window, and was illuminated like the others. An ornamental balustrade surmounted the façade of the building, and behind was the sloping roof with chimneys, in the usual style of Russian architecture. A handsome balustrade, all of ice, ran round the outside of the building. A large space was left for a promenade between the balustrade and the palace. There were also two entrances behind, with gates handsomely ornamented with orange trees in leaf and flower, with birds perched on the branches, all of ice.

Six cannons, regularly bored and turned, with their wheels and carriages, stood before the balustrade, three on each side; these were of the calibre



of such as usually receive three pounds of powder, but being of so fragile a material it was not considered safe to put in more than a quarter of a pound; the ball was of hard tow, well rammed in. Two or three times iron balls were fired from these cannons without bursting them. The experiment was tried in the presence of the court, and the ball pierced a strong plank two inches thick, at the distance of sixty paces. Two mortars stood on each side of the entrance; these were of the size of those which carry a shell of eighty pounds: when fired the charge of powder was the same as that for the cannons. On the same line stood two dolphins, which were made to throw a stream of inflamed naphtha out of their mouths, at night, by means of concealed tubes.

At the extremities of the rows of cannons, in advance of the balustrade, stood two pyramids surmounted with globes. They were raised on handsome pedestals, and had a circular window, around which a dial was painted on each of the four sides. They were hollow within, and could be entered by a doorway placed in the rear. A large paper lantern of eight sides, with monstrous figures painted on them, was hung up in the middle of each pyramid and illuminated at night; a man was stationed within to turn about the lantern, and each of the figures on it presented itself in succession at the windows of the pyramid, to the great amusement of the multitude.

An elephant of the natural size was placed on the left side of the building, and on his back was a Persian, holding a battle axe in his hand; two other Persians, one of whom held a spear, were placed in front of him. The elephant was hollow, and was made to throw water through his trunk to the height of twenty-four feet. This was done by means of tubes leading from the foss of the Admiralty near which it stood. At night burning naphtha was substituted for water, and the effect is said to have been very singular, the appearance being that of a stream of fire. To make this part of the exhibition more remarkable, a man was placed within the figure, who from time to time blew through certain pipes so as to make a noise like the roaring of an elephant. On the right of the house, at about the same distance as the elephant, a bath was built, made of round logs of ice, like the log baths used in Russia: "this bath," says our author, "was more than once actually heated and used."

After describing the outside we come to the inside of this "great plaything." The entrance was behind, and the spectator was introduced into a spacious and handsome vestibule with one room on each side. There were no other rooms than these, so that they were sufficiently spacious, and as there was no ceiling under the roof they were also very lofty.

In one of these rooms which was the bed-room, there was a dressing table fully set out with a looking-glass, and all sorts of powder and essence boxes, jars, bottles, a watch, a pair of candlesticks and candles, all of ice; the candles were sometimes smeared with naphtha and set in a blaze without melting. Before the table two little figures were placed as supporters, and against the wall a mirror was hung. In the other half of the room was the bedstead, with bed, pillows, and counterpane, finely wrought curtains, and other furniture. There was a fire-place on the right, elegantly carved, and within were logs of ice, which were occasionally smeared with naphtha and set fire to. All the other parts of the room were fitted up in a corresponding manner.

The other principal room may be called either the dining or drawing-room: here was a table with a handsome time-piece, all provided with wheels of ice, which were visible through the transparent case. On each side were settees or sofas handsomely carved, and two large statues were placed in the corners of the room, besides other furniture.

Here ends the description of this immense toy, which was indeed

———"transient in its nature, as in show  
"Twas durable."

The writer of the account says: "As long as the excessive cold lasted, that is, from the beginning of January to the middle of March, so long did this remarkable edifice stand: it then began to give towards the southern side, and soon it gradually melted away. It was not altogether useless in its destruction, for the large blocks of the walls were taken to fill the ice cellars of the imperial palace:" a very poor return for an enormous outlay.

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## THE BEDOUIN ARABS.

**T**HE word which is variously written Bedouin, Bedoween, Bedowin, or Bedwin, is a corruption of an Arabic word, which signifies "a native of the desert," and which is appropriated to the Arabian tribes that wander in the deserts of Arabia and North Africa, living always in tents in those places where they can find water and pasturage for their cattle. Each tribe is in general considered to have an exclusive property in a district, the extent and value of which is proportioned to the strength and importance of the tribe, and which, in that proportion, are commonly large, affording sufficient room for the migrations which are indispensable among a people whose subsistence is principally derived, through their cattle, from the spontaneous produce of the sterile regions they inhabit. We thus find the same tribe generally seated in the same territory, unless in those instances where any particular tribe has been displaced by another more powerful than itself, or unless the distinctive character of a tribe has been lost in consequence of any deep dislike to its sheikh, or the hope of an advantageous change having induced its members to join some neighboring tribe, which is always glad to receive such additions to its strength. It will be understood that our present remarks apply exclusively to these desert Arabs, whose character and habits are considerably different, not only from those of the Arabs who inhabit towns, but also from those of the tribes who, living on the borders of settled districts having much intercourse with the inhabitants of towns, and being in some degree controlled by the vicinity of an organized government, give their attention, during at least one part of the year, to agriculture, and exhibit the peculiar characteristics of their race in a form vitiated in some respects and softened in others. This class of people have in general acquired little more than the



vices of the condition of life to which they approximate, without having lost any of those which belonged to their original condition.

As might be expected from the extent of country which they inhabit, the personal appearance of the Bedouins varies considerably in different and distant tribes. Speaking generally, however, they may be described as a middle sized and rather thin race of men, with brown complexions and strong black hair. It is rather rare to see a tall man among them, and still more rare to see one corpulent. Indeed we do not remember ever to have seen what we should call a fat man, although men of considerable muscular stoutness may occasionally be seen. The muscles of the limbs, particularly the legs, are in general strongly developed, sometimes giving them an appearance disproportioned to the rest of the body. Their strength is very considerable, and their activity and alertness still greater, but their powers of abstinence and endurance of fatigue are more remarkable still, and are hardly exceeded by those of their camels. They can often travel four or five days without tasting water, under circumstances in which two days' abstinence would be death to a European. Their deep black eyes glare with an intensity such as is perhaps never witnessed in our northern regions, and so as to make a sensible impression on a stranger, who remembers with full credence the most marvellous stories he may have heard of their extraordinary powers of discriminating vision, and the acuteness of their other senses. They in general shave the head, leaving only the customary lock on the top, for the sake of affording a convenient hold to Mahomet when he shall raise them to Paradise. Their beards are very short and thin, which is no small calamity to them, considering the value they set upon that appendage, and the care with which they cultivate it. They anoint and cherish it with care, and each particular hair in it is to them "dear as the ruddy drops" of their heart's blood. To spit upon their beards, even by accident, is an offence scarcely within the limit of things that may be forgiven; and the threat of depriving a Bedouin of that appendage is sufficient, on the one hand, either to render him "a fugitive and a vagabond," or, on the other, to ensure his submission to any extortion and injustice.

The dress of the Bedouins is striking and characteristic. It consists generally of a shirt, a cloak, and a head-dress. The shirt is of coarse cotton, wide, and with large loose sleeves. These shirts are rarely, we may say never, changed or washed, and the necessary consequence ensues, that, as a people, they are much infested with a certain "familiar beast to man," the hunting of which forms one amusement of their superabundant leisure, in which they are much interested. The wealthier sort of people sometimes wear the common Turkish gown of cotton or of mingled cotton and silk; but the bulk of the nation are content with a sort of mantle over the shirt. This mantle is a very curious article of dress. It is generally called an "abba," and is manufactured principally at Bagdad. It reaches from the shoulders to the middle of the leg, and is nearly as wide as long, or even wider, resembling nothing so much as a square sack open in front, and with slits on each side for the arms to be put through; but they seldom are so. It is wide enough to envelop two or three bodies instead of one; and is generally worn loose and open in front. These mantles which are of various qualities and patterns, are woven with hard-twisted woollen thread, or with camels' hair. One sort, thin, light, and white, is occasionally worn

BEDOUIN ARABS.





under the other, and is also used sometimes by Turks and Persians as a convenient article of summer dress. Some are quite black, the finer sorts being interwoven with gold, and embroidered with the same or with colored silk. Those in most common use are brown, or in alternate broad, vertical stripes of white and brown, white and blue, white and black, &c. Drawers or trowsers are regarded as superfluities; and the Arabs are almost always barefoot, although they may occasionally be seen with the common Turkish red shoes or yellow boots, which they hold in considerable esteem, but do not at all number among the necessities of dress. Their head-dress consists of a stout, square kerchief of silk or silk and cotton mixed. It is made for the purpose, and the pattern is usually in broad alternate stripes of dull red and bright yellow, or yellow and green. It is fringed with long, knotted cords, and when in use is folded triangularly, and so placed on the head that one corner hangs down the back, and the two others fall on the fore part of the shoulders, so that they can be used to shelter the face from the sun, wind, or rain, or to conceal their features, if they wish to be unknown. This dependent kerchief with its knotted cords gives to the Bedouin a wild and *maney* appearance, singularly in keeping with their character and countenance. It is confined to its place by a long and thick rope of camels' hair or brown worsted, which is wound several times around the head.

This is the summer dress, and often that of winter also, except that the *abba* is then frequently brought close around the person by means of the girdle which usually confines the shirt. But in many parts it is also usual, as mentioned by Burckhardt, "to wear over the shirt a pelisse made of several sheep skins stitched together; many wear these sheep skins even in summer, because experience has taught them that the more warmly a person is clothed, the less he suffers from the sun."

The Bedouins generally encamp near some rivulet or well, where they remain until their cattle have consumed the herbage. But when, as sometimes happens, good pasturage occurs where no water is to be had, they abstain from water for several weeks together. They drink only milk; and their cattle are also able, with the exception of horses, to dispense with water so long as they can get green and juicy herbage. The encampments vary, in the number of tents and the form in which they are arranged, according to circumstances and the season of the year. When the tents are few in number, they are usually pitched in a circle; but more commonly in straight lines, when numerous, particularly if the encampment is formed near a rivulet. In winter, when the abundance of water and herbage renders concentration unnecessary, the camp is dispersed over the plain in groups of three or four tents, about a mile or a mile and a half asunder. When the camp is together near the only water in the vicinity, the cattle are sent out under the care of shepherds or slaves. They are brought back every evening while the herbage remains unconsumed in the immediate neighborhood. But if they prolong their stay beyond a few days, the flocks and herds are sent out to a considerable distance, and are only brought back to the tents every second or third day for water. When the pasture has been wholly consumed, or only remains unconsumed at too great a distance, a removal becomes necessary.

Burckhardt, to whose intimate acquaintance with the Arabs we are indebted for several details to supply deficiencies in our own information,

gives the following description of a tribe on its march:—"When I was returning from Tadmor towards Damascus, I met, on the same day, two strong encampments, moving slowly over the sandy plain in search of water and pasture; their order of march was as follows:—A party of six horsemen preceding the tribe about four miles, as a reconnoitering detachment, the main body occupied a line of at least three miles in front. First came armed horsemen and camel riders at 150 paces from each other, extending along the whole front; then followed the she camels with their young ones, grazing in wide ranks during their march upon the wild herbage; behind walked the camels loaded with the tents and provisions; and the last were the women and children, mounted on camels, having saddles made in the shape of cradles, with curtains to screen them from the sun. The men indiscriminately rode along and amidst the whole body, but most of them in front of the line; some led horses by the halters; in depth these wandering bodies extended about two miles and a half. I had seen them encamped when on my way to Tadmor, and then estimated one at about 200 and the other at 250 tents; the latter had above 3000 camels. Of all the Arabs I did not see one on foot, except a few shepherds, who drove the sheep and goats about a mile behind the main body."

Our present engraving, which is copied from M. Léon de Laborde, will serve well to illustrate this description. It represents a caravan on the move. The men on the ground have alighted to discuss the inferences which may be deduced from certain foot-marks which they have discovered in the sand.

Their tents are in general from twenty to thirty feet long by something less than half that breadth. They are divided into two apartments by a sort of white woollen carpet, or whatever else is convenient for the purpose. One of these is appropriated to the men and the other to the women. The men's apartment is spread with carpets, and the corn-sacks and camel-bags are there piled up in a pyramid, and the pack-saddles are placed here also for the men to lounge against as they sit on the ground. The room of the women is much less neat and comfortable, being crowded with all the lumber, provisions, and domestic utensils of the tent. The covering of the tent usually consists of stuff made with black goats' hair, and, when in good condition, affords a very adequate protection, not only from the sun, but from heavy rains.

The furniture of the Arab tents is characteristic of the people and their way of life. It consists of pack-saddles and riding-saddles, both for camels and horses, and of bags of hair and leather, with an abundant display of buckets, bottles, and pitchers of the latter material. These articles, together with sundry ropes, a wooden mortar for pounding coffee, a hand-mill, a coffee-pot, a copper-pan, and some wooden dishes, complete the list of utensils necessary to the domestic existence of an Arab. Among these various articles there is none that more strongly attracts the notice of a stranger than the various vessels of skin. There are sometimes large water-bags made of tanned camel-skin; but the skins in most general and diversified use are those of the goat and kid. The bucket is of leather with which they draw water from deep wells; and not only their water, but their milk, butter, cheese, dates, and other articles of provision are carried and retained in skins. Such vessels are not only more portable and less liable to damage in traveling than any other kind of vessel they could obtain,



but in their opinion (which we believe to be correct) they preserve their different articles in a state of greater freshness. Their larger water-bag is most usually the skin of a he-goat; while one from a kid is used as a bottle for occasional use during a day's journey, and commonly hangs suspended from the saddle. The most common sort make a curious appearance when full of water, resembling an animal, the head and feet of which have been cut off. The manner in which the Arabs, and others who use such vessels, obtain them without seam is very simple. When the animal is killed, its head and feet are cut off, and the carcass is drawn out of the skin without the belly being opened.

It is a great mistake to consider the Arabian tribes as leagued together in war against all that is beyond the pale of their own barbarism. They war, but are not leagued in war. There is no union among them. The country is to be viewed as a vast desert apportioned amongst distinct tribes continually at strife with each other, and continually exposed to each other's depredations. And this state of things has continued so long, that the whole matter of mutual depredation has become a subject of definite regulations, which, by heightening the adventure of the business, and diversifying the possible results and contingencies, make it a sort of game in which no one suffers disgrace but the loser.

There is no form of robbery or theft which a Bedouin considers disgraceful. The attempt to plunder one another is considered a fair and honorable undertaking even by him whose property is the object, and who exerts himself to defeat it, and to turn it to the best account for himself that he can. In fact, no discredit attaches to robbery under any circumstances, or upon any person, except when it is committed by an Arab upon one who is actually in his tent. Robberies by Arabs upon their neighbors, in their own camp, and upon their own tribe, are of continual occurrence, nor does such an act leave any stain upon the character of a Bedouin; but neither do they add much to his glory, which must be chiefly won by robbing his own enemies or the enemies of his tribe; and these are almost identical terms, for an individual difference very commonly ends in a misunderstanding between tribes.

If an Arab intends to go on a predatory excursion, he takes with him a dozen friends who all clothe themselves in rags, in order that, if they should be captured, they may have a chance of being unknown, and their ransom proportioned to their apparent condition in life. The trick has grown so stale, however, that it seldom avails, unless under peculiar circumstances. Each man takes a little flour, some salt, and a small skin of water, and thus slenderly provided they often make journeys of eight days from their own camp. When they arrive about evening at the camp against which their enterprise is directed, three of the most daring of the robbers are dispatched towards the tents, at which they take care to arrive about midnight, a time when most Arabs are asleep. The others are to await their return within a short distance of the camp. Each of the three principal actors has an allotted department of duty to perform. One of them, called the *Mostambéh*, gets behind the tent that is to be robbed, and endeavors to attract the attention of the nearest watch-dogs. When he has succeeded, they immediately assail him, on which he takes to his heels, and the dogs pursue him to a great distance. The premises being thus left unprotected, another of the three, who is emphatically styled the *harami* or "robber,"

BEDOUIN ROBBERS.





advances towards the camels, and cutting the cords which confine their legs, makes them rise from their knees. An unloaded camel always rises and walks about without making the least noise. The *harami* then leads one of the she camels out of the camp, and the others always follow of their own accord. Meanwhile the third of the adventurers (called *kayde*) stands at the door of the tent with a club ready to knock down any one that comes out. As soon as the *harami* has performed his duty, the other joins him in driving off the prey. When they have got to a little distance, each of them seizes one of the strongest camels by the tail, which they pull with all their might. This causes the beasts to set off at a gallop, dragging the men along with them, and followed by the other camels at the same pace, till they arrive at the place where the other men are waiting; then, leaving the camels with them, they hasten to relieve the *mostambe* from the dogs. As many as fifty camels are often stolen in this manner without any alarm having been given. The robbers reach home by forced marches, traveling night and day, and in the ultimate division of the spoil, the chief of the party and the three principal performers get an extra portion.

In an adventure of this daring character it sometimes happens that one or more of the robbers are surrounded and seized; and the treatment to which they are then subjected furnishes illustrations of some of those very peculiar usages which, like their conventional hospitality, seem to have been devised to avert that utter desolation and the entire disruption of every national bond which must have resulted from the unmitigated operation of the system on which they live. Immemorial custom has established the usage in the desert, that if any person who is in actual danger from another can touch a third person, or any inanimate thing which he has in his hands, or with which he is in contact, or that if he can but touch him so indirectly as by spitting upon him, or throwing a stone at him, at the same time exclaiming *Ana dakheilak!* "I am thy protected!" that person is bound by every principle of honor to grant him the protection he demands. A robber who has been captured is naturally always on the watch for an opportunity of taking the benefit of this regulation; and the captor is equally anxious to deprive him of the advantage. The result is curious. The prisoner is compelled by blows, if words fail, to renounce his right to claim this protection. But this renunciation is only valid during the day in which it is made, and he is therefore obliged during every day of his detention, to repeat the renunciation to every one who enters the tent in which he is confined. The object of his detention is to extract the highest possible ransom from him. For this purpose, as well as for his safe custody, and to prevent his opportunities of claiming protection, a grave two feet deep is dug in the tent in which he is laid with his feet chained to the ground, his hands tied, and his hair fastened to stakes on each side of his head. This grave is crossed with poles, upon which are heaped all sorts of heavy goods, leaving only a small opening over the robber's face. The food he receives is barely sufficient to keep life in him. His perseverance in concealing his name, if he is of a wealthy family, and in pleading poverty, sometimes prolongs his confinement in this way for as much as six months; after which the captor gets tired, and lets him go on comparatively moderate terms. The imprisonment seldom lasts so long as this however. He is also liberated on easy terms, or even without any ransom, if his life seems endangered by imprisonment; for if the man dies in

fetters, his blood is considered to rest on the head of the captor. The man sometimes contrives to disengage himself from his grave, and escape to a neighboring tent, from the owner of which he claims protection. Occasionally he obtains this advantage by contriving from his hole to spit on some person whose protection he has not renounced; or if a child happens to give him a morsel of bread, he is entitled to claim the privilege of having eaten with his liberator. Sometimes he is recognized, and is obliged to give up all his cattle and movables as a ransom. His friends do not fail to exert themselves to the utmost in effecting the liberation of the captured robber, either by force, or by the numerous ingenious contrivances which form almost the only channel through which the Bedouins have opportunity to manifest the talent and ingenuity with which they are as amply endowed as any nation under heaven.

A very common method of relieving the captured robber from his grave is that one of his relations, commonly his mother or sister, goes to the camp in which he is confined, and is received into one of the tents in the privileged character of a guest. Having ascertained in what tent her relation is confined, she takes an opportunity to introduce herself at night with a ball of thread in her hand, and approaching the pit manages to put one end of the thread into his mouth, or fastens it to his foot, and then retires, winding off the thread as she goes. She proceeds to some neighboring tent, and awakening the owner applies the thread to his bosom, and says, "Look on me—by the love thou bearest to God and thy own self, *this* is under thy protection." The Arab then arises, and taking the thread in his hand follows the clue until it guides him to the tent in which the *harami* is confined. He awakes the owner, and, showing him the thread, declares that he has become the protector of the captive. The captor readily acquiesces. The fetters of the robber are taken off, the thongs which tied his hair are cut with a knife, he is drawn forth from his grave, and, after having been entertained as a newly arrived guest by the man whose prisoner he just before was, he is allowed to depart in safety.

Fire-arms are now rather common among them, and are generally worn slung to the back. They are of very coarse workmanship, in general; but wealthy persons have them of considerable elegance, inlaid with ivory and otherwise ornamented. Good pieces are distinguished by particular names, and descend as an entailed property from father to son. The Bedouin is usually expert in the use of it, and takes a surer aim than would be readily thought possible with so clumsy a weapon. The most common and characteristic arms of the Arabs are their lances. They are of two sorts, one of wood, and the other a strong reed with many joints. The latter are preferred, as being the lightest. This weapon has usually a point of iron or steel at each end, that at the bottom being chiefly used to stick the lance in the ground when not in use. The proper blade is never less than a foot long, and is variously formed in different parts. This weapon is often without any ornament, but sometimes the handle is decorated with small nails and rings, and there are often one or two balls or tufts of ostrich feathers fixed at the head below the blade. It is usually more than ten feet long; but there is another used as a halbert by men on foot, and which differs little from this except in being shorter. Almost every Bedouin wears a sabre on all occasions, even when he goes to sip coffee in a neighbor's tent. The blades are seldom of good quality. Every Bedouin also wears in his girdle

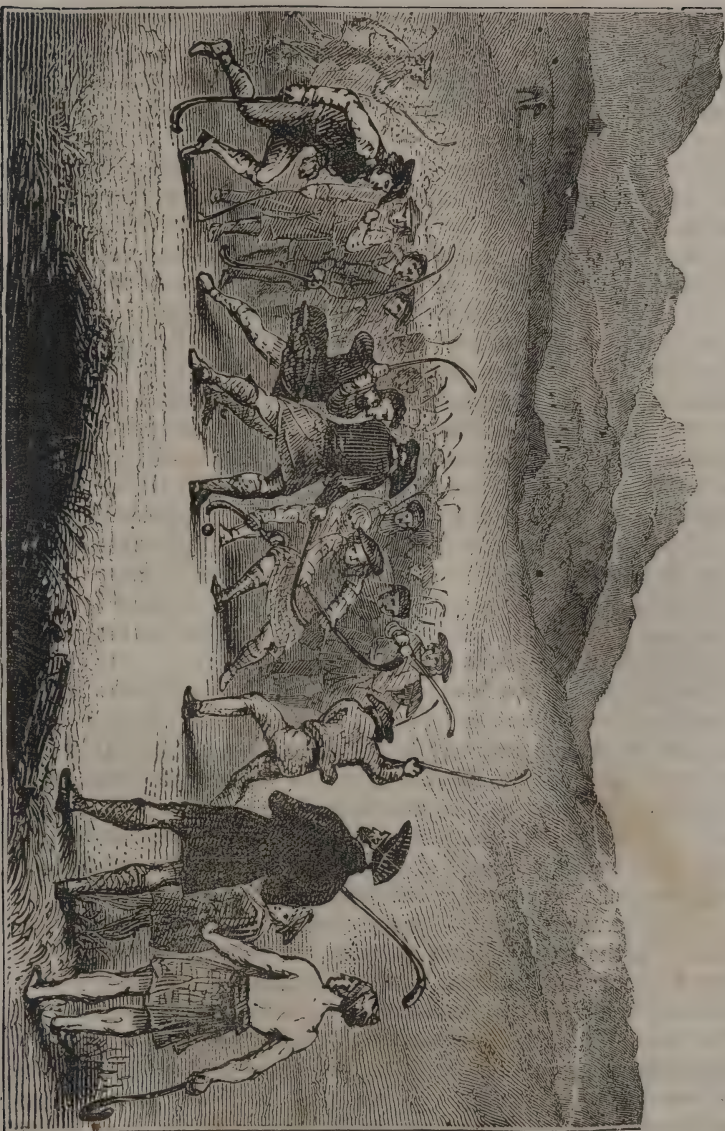


a long curved knife or dagger, and which, besides being employed as a weapon, is abundantly in use as a cutting instrument on all common occasions—like the clasp-knife of a sailor. It is worn obliquely before the body, the handle towards the left side, with the point upwards. Clubs or maces between two and three feet long are much in use, both by those on horseback and on foot when not armed with the lance. These formidable weapons are occasionally of iron; but more usually of wood loaded with iron at the end, and sometimes wholly of heavy wood, or only studded with iron spikes at the head. Shepherds in attending flocks at a distance from the camps usually prefer the shorter lance, and also use a sling, which they employ with much dexterity in throwing stones as large as a man's fist. As instruments of defence they have shields, generally round, and from a foot to eighteen inches in diameter. They are commonly of metal, hard wood, or from the hide of the buffalo, wild ox, or hippopotamus. They have generally a point in the center, and are frequently carved and embossed. Those of wood or metal are generally covered with leather. Coats of mail are still partially used. One sort covers the whole body like a gown, from the elbows over the shoulders down to the knees; the other covers the body only to the waist—the arms, from the elbows downwards, being covered with two pieces of steel, fitting into each other with iron fingers. This equipment is completed by an iron cap, which is rarely if ever decorated with feathers. This defensive armor is only used in regular warfare, and then to no great extent.

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## THE GAME OF SHINTY.

**I**N the Highlands of Scotland it is customary for persons to amuse themselves, in the winter season, with a game which they call "shinty." The boys of America call a similar game "shinny." The shinty is played with a small, hard ball, which is generally made of wood, and each player is furnished with a curved stick resembling that which is seen in the engraving. The object of each party of players is to send the ball beyond a given boundary on either side; and the skill of the game consists in striking the ball to the greatest distance towards the adversaries' boundary, or in manœuvring to keep it in advance of the opposing side. Large parties assemble during the Christmas holidays, one parish sometimes making a match against another. In the struggles between the contending players many hard blows are given, and frequently a shin is broken, or by a rarer chance some more serious accident may occur. The writer witnessed a match, in which one of the players, having gained possession of the ball, contrived to run a mile with it in his hand, pursued by both his own and the adverse party until he reached the appointed limit, when his victory was admitted. Many of the Highland farmers join with eagerness in the sport, and the laird frequently encourages by his presence this amusement of his laborers and tenants.



GAME OF SHINTY.



## THE ART OF ILLUMINATING MANUSCRIPTS.

**B**IBLES, Psalters, Missals, Chronicles or Registers of monasteries, books of Heraldry and Chivalry, &c., with some few translations from the ancient writers were the chief class of manuscripts adorned by pictures or illuminations previously to the fifteenth century. But on the approach of the fifteenth century, Tales and Romances, with other productions of a light nature, becoming much patronized, caused a great improvement in art, by exciting the imaginations of the artists on new and more ideal subjects. Patronized by the courtly dames and chevaliers of "la belle France," the miniaturists used their best efforts to render those poems and romances as attractive to the eye as they were to the ear of youth and beauty; and how well they succeeded let the glittering remnants of their art, of the fifteenth century, which have escaped the destructive hand of time and barbarism, themselves testify.

The fifteenth century is remarkably profuse in illuminated romances, poems, &c. Of the very commencement is one now in the British Museum, being a collection of poems by Christine of Pisa. This is a large folio of 398 leaves of vellum, written in double columns in a small Gothic letter. The writing itself is not deserving of notice on account of any beauty of execution, but it is illustrated by so extraordinary a number of miniatures, generally of about six inches in height by three or four in width, drawn in the most elaborate and graceful manner, that the work presents one of the most dazzling and elegant specimens of the art of the miniaturist which that period can boast, rich as it is in specimens of this nature.

The annexed engraving gives a faint representation (on a diminished scale) of one of these miniatures, but the effect is so greatly heightened in the original by the colors, that it scarcely appears the same thing. It represents the presentation of the book by the authoress to her patroness, Isabel of Bavaria, the queen of Charles VI., who, seated on a couch, is habited in a rich crimson robe lined with ermine, and covered with golden ornaments, confined at the waist by a green girdle. Her majesty has her hair dressed in the very extremity of the prevailing fashion, the cushion being completely covered with rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones. Her face and hands are finished in the most delicate manner, the features having all the characteristics of a portrait '*ad vivum*.' The two ladies by her side—princesses, or maids of honor,—have head-dresses similar to that worn by the queen, being adorned like it with ornaments; but the rest of their apparel is less splendid, both being clad in black. The four females near the bed are probably less distinguished ladies of the court, as their garments and head-dresses, though of more showy colors, do not appear to be so aristocratic as those in which the others are habited. The centre of the group is occupied by the fair authoress, who, dressed in a plain and neat blue gown, is kneeling at the feet of the queen, to whom she presents the volume of her poems. The drapery of the bed is of a bright scarlet, and the hangings of the walls of blue silk, fretted with fleurs de lis and lozenges of



CHRISTINE PRESENTING HER BOOK TO THE QUEEN.



gold, which are also embroidered on the bed coverings. Beneath this drawing is the dedicatory inscription, surrounded by an elegant border, which divides the columns, and runs up each side of the page.

Christine de Pisan was born at Bolonga (la Grasse) in 1364. In her fifth year she was taken to Paris by her father, (whom she alludes to in the above MS. as being patronized by the king,) and in her 15th year she married Stephen Castel, a young gentleman of Picardy, who died at the age of 34, in 1389. She is said only to have commenced authoress at the age of thirty-five, but after that time several productions emanated from her pen, both in prose and verse, some of which Caxton printed.

## THE WALHALLA, OR HALL OF HEROES, IN BAVARIA.

**M**ORE than thirty years since, the king of Bavaria, whilst he was Crown Prince, projected the erection of a temple, under the name of Walhalla, (Hall of Heroes,) to be destined as an imperishable monument to the national glory of Germany. This was designed to contain the busts and statues of the most celebrated men of Germany, in all ages. Preparations for the work went on for some years. The first stone was laid by the king on the 18th of October, 1830, the sixteenth anniversary of the battle of Leipzig, the day of the deliverance of Germany from the French dominion. The temple is built on a hill near the village of Donau-stauf, about four miles from Ratisbon. The situation had been admirably selected by the king, in the midst of the vast plain of the Danube, and in the center of Bavaria. It stands on the summit of a fine bold hill, rising immediately from the banks of the Danube, and is surrounded by a fine amphitheatre of hills, clothed with oak and fir, on the summit of one of which are the ruins of the castle of Stauff. On the side towards the river vast flights of steps lead up to the building, which is approached on the other side by a romantic road which winds up the hill through a fine grove of oaks.

The temple is Doric, of grand dimensions, and is built entirely of a whitish-gray marble, the columns and interior ornaments being of a finer kind of marble got from the quarries in Bavaria. It was designed by the Baron Klenze, one of the most distinguished architects of Germany, and presents a magnificent object to those passing up and down the vast waters of the Danube. The pediments at either end are to be filled with sculpture by the first artists of Bavaria, and the interior presents an oblong square, the walls of which above are ornamented with a carved frieze, representing the migrations, religious customs, manners, wars, and commerce of the primitive Germans. Under this frieze, (arranged in rows, divided by pilasters of red marble, with white Ionic capitals,) are to be the statues, busts, and names of all "the distinguished great, of all ranks and conditions in the state, of the whole German nation, and who here, in the Walhalla of Louis, as in the dwelling places of the blessed, are united."

THE WALHALLA.





## THE EUROTAS.

**J**USTLY celebrated in the ancient history of the Greeks, this river ran close by the city of Sparta, and was the scene of many important events. In very early ages it was styled the river of Marathon,—then the Himere,—and at a later period, obtained the name of Eurotas.

It rises near the source of the Alpheus, another stream of classical celebrity, in the territory of Megalopolis in Peloponnesus, (now the Morea, and a portion of the new Greek kingdom.) According to Strabo and Pausanias, both the Eurotas and the Alpheus run hidden under ground for the space of some stadia, after which they reappear, and issue forth, the one into Laconia, and the other into what was anciently the country of the Pisæ, at the west of the Peloponnesus. Colonel Leake seems inclined to doubt more than one of the wonderful stories told of these two classical rivers. The facts he gives from his own observation are, that the Alpheus rises at the distance of five stadia from Asea, (the ruins of which city are still visible,) a short way from the road,—that the source of the Eurotas is close by the road side, and near to the fountain of the Alpheus,—that a roofless temple, dedicated to Cybele, and two lions, cut in stone, ornament the source of the Alpheus, while the waters of the Eurotas (now, at least,) gurgle forth unhonored by the presence of any work of art; and finally, that the two streams uniting flow together for twenty stadia in one bed, when they descend a chasm and separate.

A little to the south of Sparta, a romantic torrent called Pandeilemona joins the Eurotas, whose waters are besides swelled by a number of streams descending chiefly from the Taygetum, and finding their way through hollows in the chain of low hills on which the Spartan capital once stood.

On the site of Sparta, at the time of Colonel Leake's visit, there were only two small villages,—Magula, consisting of four or five huts, and Psykhiko, of fourteen or fifteen,—and even these have probably disappeared during the horrors of revolutionary and partisan warfare. All the level ground of the site was then cultivated with corn. Facing a hollow in the middle of the bank of hills on which the city stood, are the remains of a bridge over the Eurotas. At the head of this bridge the roads from all the eastern part of the Lacedemonian territory centered, and the hollow at the other end of the bridge led directly into the Agora or great public square of Sparta,—the general mart and the place where all public business was transacted.

The Spartan plain, the river, and the surrounding mountains, all immortalized by poetry and history, are of surpassing grandeur and beauty. They are seen to the greatest advantage from the neighboring castle of Mistra, an important geographical position, about 500 feet above the level of the Eurotas.

After the river Eurotas has washed the feet of the now solitary hills of Sparta, and flowed through the Spartan plain, it winds through a long, narrow valley to Helos, the city of the unfortunate Helots, and there falls into



THE EUBROTAS.



the sea between Gythium, the ancient sea-port of Sparta, of which considerable remains still exist, and Acria, another maritime place that has left no traces of its existence except some small and scattered fragments of walls, and the base of a single column.

In ancient times, the Eurotas was celebrated for the number and beauty of the swans that sailed upon its tranquil waters. These graceful birds are not mentioned by modern travelers, who, however, describe another incident which characterized the old river. This is the growth, in the bed of the Eurotas, and more particularly towards its mouth, of a prodigious quantity of fine, tall, and strong reeds. The Spartans of old, whose grand object was to form a hardy, fearless race, made their children go and gather these reeds with their hands, without knives or any other instrument to assist them. And these reeds worked into mats formed their only bed and bedding, or to translate the words of an old French writer, they were "the mattress, feather-bed, sheets, and coverlets of the warlike Spartans."

This iron race of men were also accustomed to plunge their infants into the Eurotas, to inure them betimes to the severities of cold. These immersions must have oftentimes been *cold indeed*, for in the spring or early summer months, the bed of the river is chiefly filled by melted snow, which descends from the adjacent mountains, and from the shortness of its course has not time to raise its temperature.

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## GIBRALTAR.

**W**ERE the inhabitants of New-York city to see an impregnable fortress, tenanted by Frenchmen or Spaniards, frowning over the surrounding sea and land at the Narrows, they would think it bad enough. Yet this would be nothing to the case of the English occupation of Gibraltar—the only instance on record where one of the keys of a great kingdom is held in permanent possession by a foreign nation. That promontory, besides its admirable advantages as a place of strength, may be said, owing to the narrowness of the strait upon which it juts out, to command, not merely the corner of Andalusia immediately under it, but the whole of the western coast of Spain, comprising nearly two-thirds of the whole maritime circumference of that country. It effectually cuts off all communication by sea between that part of Spain which is bounded by the Mediterranean and those parts which are bounded by the Atlantic. It disables that power as much as England would be disabled by another nation having the ability to hinder a ship passing from Liverpool, or Belfast, or Dublin, or Cork, or Plymouth, to Leith, or Hull, or London.

It appears, however, to have been late, before the importance of this rock was discovered. The ancients had a fable that Europe and Africa were originally joined at this point, and that the two continents were riven asunder by Hercules, and a passage thereby opened between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. Gibraltar, under the name of Calpe, and Mount

Abyla, opposite to it on the African coast, were called the Pillars of Hercules, and appear to have been in very early ages regarded by the people dwelling to the east of them, including the Carthaginians, the Greeks, and the Romans, as the western boundary of the world. It was probably long before navigation penetrated beyond this limit. Even in after times, however, when Spain became well known to the Romans, and a province of their empire, we do not read of any fort being erected on the rock of Calpe. It is doubtful if it was even the site of a town. No Roman antiquities have ever been found on the spot or in the neighborhood.

The place appears to have been first seized upon and converted into a military station by the Moors when they invaded Spain in the beginning of the eighth century. From their leader, Tarif, it was in consequence called Gibel-Tarif, or the Mountain of Tarif, of which Arabic name Gibraltar is a corruption. Soon after establishing themselves here, the Moors erected a lofty and extensive castle on the north-west side of the mountain, the ruins of which still remain. Gibraltar continued in the possession of the Moors for between seven and eight centuries, with the exception of about thirty years, during which it was held by the Christians, having been taken soon after the commencement of the 14th century by Ferdinand, king of Castile. It was recovered, however, in 1333, by Abomelek, the son of the emperor of Fez, and the Moors were not finally dispossessed of it till the middle of the following century. After that it remained a part of the kingdom of Spain, down nearly to our own times.

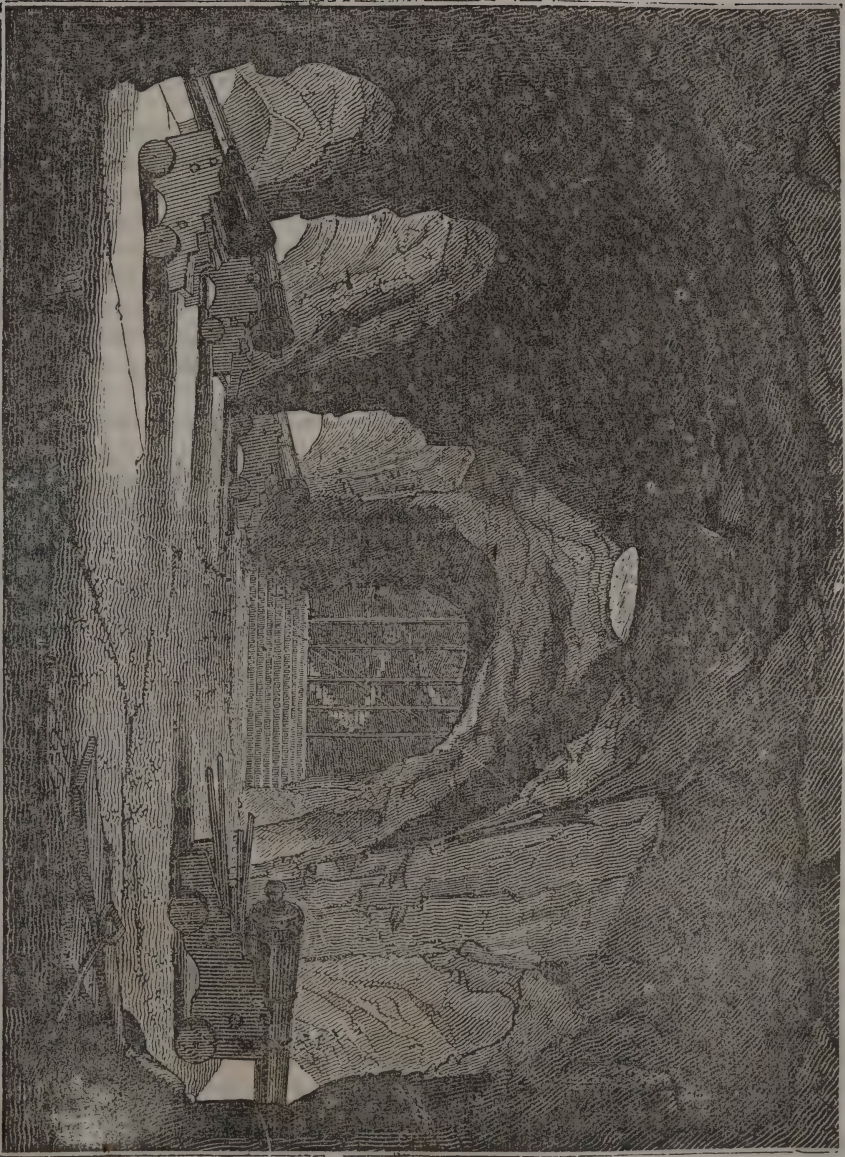
The promontory of Gibraltar forms the south-western extremity of the province of Andalusia, running out into the sea in nearly a due south direction for about three miles. The greater part of this tongue consists of a very lofty rock. It rises abruptly from the land to the height of fully 1300 feet, presenting a face almost perfectly perpendicular, and being, consequently, from that, its northern extremity, completely inaccessible. The west side, however, and the southern extremity, consist each of a series of precipices or declivities which admit of being ascended. The town, now containing a population of above 17,000 persons, is built on the west side. Along the summit of the mountain, from north to south, runs a bristling ridge of rocks, forming a ragged and undulating line against the sky when viewed from the east or west. The whole of the western breast of the promontory is nearly covered with fortifications. Anciently, it is said, it used to be well wooded in many places; but there are now very few trees to be seen, although a good many gardens are scattered up and down both in the town and among the fortifications. A great part of the rock is hollowed out into caverns, some of which are of magnificent dimensions, especially one called St. George's Cave, at the southern point, which although having only an opening of five feet, expands into an apartment of two hundred feet in length by ninety in breadth, from the lofty roof of which descend numerous stalactitical pillars, giving it the appearance of a gothic cathedral. These caves seem to have been the chief thing for which Gibraltar was remarkable among the ancients. They are mentioned by the Roman geographer, Pomponius Mela, who wrote about the middle of the first century of our era. The southern termination of the rock of Gibraltar is called Europa Point, and has been sometimes spoken of as the termination in that direction of the European continent; but Tarifa Point, to the west of Gibraltar, is fully five miles farther south.





THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.





INTERIOR OF THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR



It is impossible for us here to attempt any description of the fortifications which now cover so great a part of this celebrated promontory. Gibraltar was first fortified in the modern style by the German engineer, Daniel Speckel, at the command of the emperor Charles V., towards the close of the sixteenth century. But little of what was then erected probably now remains. Since the place fell into the possession of the English no expense has been spared to turn its natural advantages to the best account, and additions have repeatedly been made to the old fortifications on the most extensive scale. It is now, without doubt, the most complete fortress in the world.

More than half a century ago Gibraltar was accounted by military men almost impregnable. "No power whatever," says Colonel James, in his *History of the Herculean Straits*, published in 1771, "can take that place, unless a plague, pestilence, famine, or the want of ordnance, musketry, and ammunition, or some unforeseen stroke of Providence, should happen." It is certainly now much stronger than it was then. One improvement which has especially added to its security is the formation of numerous covered galleries excavated in the rock, with embrasures for firing down upon both the isthmus and the bay. The interior of part of these works is represented in one of the engravings.

Gibraltar was taken by an English fleet, under the command of Sir George Rooke and the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt, in July, 1704. The project of the attack was very suddenly formed at a council of war held on board the admiral's ship, while the fleet was cruising in the Mediterranean, and it was apprehended that it would be obliged to return to England without having performed any exploit commensurate to the expectations with which it had been fitted out. The affair proved a very easy one; the garrison, which consisted of one hundred and fifty men, having surrendered after a bombardment of only a few hours. The assailants lost only sixty lives, the greater part by a mine which was sprung after they had effected a landing. In the latter part of the same year a most resolute effort was made to recover the place by the combined forces of France and Spain, which failed, after it had been persevered in for several months, and had cost the besiegers not less than 10,000 men. The loss of the garrison was about 400.

At the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the possession of Gibraltar was confirmed to England. In 1727, however, another attempt on a formidable scale was made by Spain to dislodge the foreigners. An army of 20,000 men having encamped in the neighborhood, the attack was commenced in February and continued till the 12th of May, when it was put an end to by the general peace. In this siege the garrison lost 300 in killed and wounded; but the loss of the besiegers was not less than 3000. The guns in the fortifications, it is worthy of remark, proved so bad that seventy cannons and thirty mortars burst in the course of the firing.

But the most memorable of all the sieges of Gibraltar was the last, which commenced in 1779, and did not terminate till it had continued for more than three years. Of this remarkable siege an excellent and interesting account has been given by Captain John Drinkwater, who was present in the beleaguered fortress during the whole time. England was engaged in sustaining the contest with her revolted colonies in America, when hostilities were also commenced against her, first by France and

some time after by Spain. There is no doubt that, whatever were her professions, the latter power took up arms merely with the object of recovering Gibraltar. The Spanish ambassador having announced the intentions of his Court, in London, on the 16th of June, 1779, on the 21st of the same month all communication between Gibraltar and the surrounding country was closed by command of the government of Madrid. It was the middle of the following month, however, before the Spaniards began to block up the fort. Fortunately, in the early part of this year, General George Augustus Eliot, who had been recently appointed Governor, had arrived in the fort, and brought to the crisis that was approaching the aid of his great military science and talents, as well as some of the highest moral qualities that ever adorned the soldier or the man. General Eliot was at this time about sixty years of age, more than forty of which he had spent in the service of his country. Another fortunate circumstance was that a supply of provisions had arrived in the preceding April. Had it not been for this the garrison might have suffered terribly from the sudden stoppage of their accustomed intercourse both with Spain and with Africa.

The first firing which took place was on the 12th of September, when a cannonade was opened from the fort which destroyed the works that the besiegers had spent many of the preceding weeks in erecting. The blockade, notwithstanding, became every day closer; and the occasional boats, which had for some time stolen in from the African coast and other places, at length found it impossible to continue their attempts. By the end of October provisions had become extremely dear. About the same time, too, the small-pox broke out among the Jewish inhabitants of the town, and every precaution had to be used to prevent the spread of the disease. In November, the Governor, in order to try on how little food life and strength could be sustained, restricted himself for eight days to four ounces of rice per day. Thistles, dandelions, wild leeks, &c., began to be eaten by the people of the town; and meat sold from half-a-crown to four shillings the pound.

The first firing from the besiegers took place on the 12th of January, 1780; and the first person wounded in the fort was a woman. By the end of March the first supply of provisions arrived, brought in by the gallant Admiral Rodney, who had not only cut his way to the assistance of his distressed countrymen through all the opposition of the enemy, but had captured six of their men-of-war, including a sixty-four gun ship with the admiral on board, together with seventeen merchant-men. William IV., then known as Prince William Henry, was serving on board one of Sir George Rodney's ships as a midshipman, and often visited the garrison while the fleet remained in the bay. Captain Drinkwater relates that, on seeing a prince of the blood thus serving as a warrant-officer, the captive Spanish Admiral exclaimed that Great Britain well deserved the empire of the seas, when even her king's sons were found thus holding the humblest situations on board her ships.

For a good many months after this, things continued in nearly the same state. The garrison and townspeople were again and again reduced to the greatest privations, by scarcity of provisions, before supplies arrived. In the spring of 1781, the besiegers at last opened their batteries, and continued firing upon the town till they had completely destroyed it. On the 27th of April, however, a most gallant exploit was performed by a party



from the garrison, who, making a sortie from their fortifications, succeeded in setting fire to, and reducing to ashes, all the erections of the enemy, although distant not less than three-quarters of a mile. This, however, brought only a temporary relief. The firing soon after recommenced, and, for more than a year, continued almost incessantly. In the course of 1782 it was, on the suggestion of Gen. Boyd, returned from the Rock with red-hot balls, a device which was found to produce the most powerful effect. The enemy, however, now prepared for a grand effort. On the 12th of September the combined fleets of France and Spain arrived in the bay. Next morning there was drawn up around the south and west sides of the promontory a most formidable armament, consisting of forty-seven sail of the line, seven of which were three-deckers, together with ten battering ships, the strongest of any that had ever been built, and many frigates and smaller vessels. On land there lay an army of 40,000 men, with batteries on which were mounted 200 pieces of heavy ordnance. On the other side, the garrison now consisted of about 7,000 effective men. The ships were permitted to take their stations without molestation; but, about a quarter before ten o'clock, as soon as the first of them dropped anchor, the citadel began to pour upon them its hitherto reserved artillery. Now commenced a scene of terrible sublimity. Four hundred pieces of the heaviest ordnance thundered without intermission, and filled the air with smoke and flame. "For some hours," says Captain Drinkwater, "the attack and defense were so equally well supported as scarcely to admit any appearance of superiority in the cannonade on either side. The wonderful construction of the ships seemed to bid defiance to the powers of the heaviest ordnance. In the afternoon, however, the face of things began to change considerably. The smoke which had been observed to issue from the upper part of the flag-ship appeared to prevail, notwithstanding the constant application of water; and the admiral's second was perceived to be in the same condition. Confusion was now apparent on board several of the vessels, and, by the evening, their cannonade was considerably abated. About seven or eight o'clock it almost entirely ceased, excepting from one or two ships to the northward, which, from their distance, had suffered little injury."

In the end, the attack ended in the complete annihilation of the assailing squadron. All the larger ships were beaten to pieces or burnt. As night approached, groans and signals of distress from those on board the shattered navy supplied the place of the now slackened fire. Many of the wretched men were struggling for life in the waters; and the victors themselves at last put out to their assistance, and picked numbers of them up. The loss of the enemy was supposed to amount to about 2,000, including prisoners. Of the English there were only 16 killed and 68 wounded. The Rock was a much better defence than even those strong-built men-of-war. The assailants had had 300 pieces of ordnance in play, the garrison only employed 80 cannon, 7 mortars, and 9 howitzers. "Upwards of 8,300 rounds," says Captain Drinkwater, "more than half of which were hot shot, and 716 barrels of powder, were expended by our artillery."

Even this complete discomfiture, however, did not subdue the obstinacy of the besiegers. They continued to encompass the place, and even to keep up a feeble fire upon it some months longer. At length the long blockade was terminated by the announcement of the signature of the preliminaries of a general peace on the 2d of February, 1783. The men in

the Spanish boat that came with the tidings of this event, made their appearance with ecstasy in their countenances, and exclaiming, "We are all friends!" It was not till the 10th of March, however, that free intercourse was reëstablished by the arrival from England of the official intelligence that peace had been concluded. General Eliot and his brave companions soon after returned home to receive the congratulations of their country; and since this hard contest no foreign power has dared to assault Gibraltar.

## THE DEVIL'S BRIDGE.

**T**HIS name is very generally applied to bridges placed in difficult and hazardous places, the popular ignorance of old times easily getting over the difficulty of their construction by attributing them to the evil one. There are many devil's bridges among the Alps, in Savoy, Switzerland, the Tyrol, and the Grisons; there are others among the Apennines, in Italy, and others again among the Pyrenean mountains; but the subject of our present illustration is a Welsh devil's bridge. It is situated in Cardiganshire, South Wales, between Hafod and Aberystwith, and not far from the roots of the mighty Plinlimmon. This bridge is thrown across a deep rent or chasm in the rocks through which, about 118 feet below the arch, the river Mynach forces its way, and after flowing onwards for a few yards, dashes down in a succession of cataracts into a deep abyss, which is about 326 feet beneath the level of the bridge, but only partially seen from it. The opposite disrupted cliffs, at the point where the arch spans them in a very bold and picturesque manner, are not above eighteen feet asunder; they are in part covered with hardy mountain ash and other trees; but lower down they lay bare their magnificent masses of dark rock, which have been worn, fretted, and brought to a slippery-looking polish, by the constant rushing of the Mynach, which is here rather a mountain torrent than a river. A fine safe carriage-road leading to the foot of Plinlimmon runs over the upper arch; for, as the reader will perceive in the engraving, there are two arches that span the chasm, the one over the other. The lower bridge, to which the legend made the devil stand godfather, was built in 1187, by the monks of Star-flower Abbey, an important house of the Cistercian order, where many of the ancient Welsh princes were buried, and the mouldering ruins of which are still to be seen in the neighborhood, at a short distance from Hafod. In those dark ages most of the monastic orders were the benefactors of mankind, and the pioneers of civilization; they were the greatest road and bridge makers then in existence; for while the warlike barons and lawless feudal chiefs found their safety and glory in inaccessible mountain fortresses and dangerous and impassable ways, it was to the interest of the monks that the faithful from all parts should be able to repair without impediment to their abbeys and churches, the shrines of which were to be enriched by popular piety, whilst



their own influence was to be increased by a direct and constant communication with the people. This particular bridge, though insignificant enough as a modern work, was important and extensively useful in those days, and indeed even now it (or rather its successor) is the only direct medium of communication between those who live on the opposite sides of the long deep chasm or bed of the Mynach. After having done good service for 600 years—facilitating the friendly intercourse of man with man, and the interchange of people's cattle, produce, and goods—after having survived the religion (as a national faith) of those who built it, and the cells and cloisters of the proud Abbey in which they lived, this old bridge showed some symptoms of weakness and decay, and consequently the new arch was built over it in 1753, the expense being borne by the county. At each end of the bridge there is a steep, rough path down the rocky sides of the chasm to some ledges hanging over the stream, where the visitor may stand almost immediately under the arch, and hear, with singular effect, "the roar of many waters," whose headlong course is unseen, or only very partially and mysteriously revealed at one or two points of rock. The foaming waves, indeed, seem to sink into the bowels of the earth, and to see them reappear the traveler must climb up the path and descend again into the chasm by a still rougher and indeed a somewhat dangerous path, about one hundred yards to the south-west of the bridge. A guide, who is always on the spot, and a little courage, accompanied by prudence and patience, will however carry him safely down the ravine to a broad and compact ledge of rocks, whence his eye can take in nearly the whole of this compound and really beautiful cataract, which may be dwelt upon for hours and with increasing delight, even by those who have seen the grander waterfalls of Switzerland and Italy.

After passing through the narrow, funnel-shaped passage under the bridge, the impetuous Mynach makes four leaps or falls. The first is about forty yards south-west of the bridge, where, after roaring over a rough ridge, it is projected into a fine rocky basin at the depth of eighteen feet. Its next leap is sixty feet, and the third twenty. It then encounters rocks of prodigious size, and of the most boldly picturesque forms, through which it rolls, dashes, roars, and hisses till it reaches the edge of a tremendous cliff—a sheer precipice—down the face of which it throws itself to a depth of 110 feet. Thus the falls together are 208 perpendicular feet, to which ought to be added some feet for the declivity of the three basins or pools they encounter in their descent. After its fourth and greatest leap, the vexed Mynach—still pouring over an oblique and rocky bed—rolls, as a rapid, to the bottom of a broader and more open chasm, where it joins its waters with the Rhydol, another impetuous mountain stream that, having flowed during part of its course through a narrow chasm like that under the Devil's Bridge, and made a fine fall a few hundred yards off, meets the Mynach nearly at a right angle. The encountering streams, particularly at the seasons when their waters are most abundant, clash and roar, rush upon and retire from each other like enemies in deadly conflict; but, after a while, becoming friendly on a better acquaintance with each other, and finding more room to move in (for the chasm expands into a fair valley and allows of a wide and level bed), they flow on, in gentle unison, like one and the same river. The inefficiency of words to describe a scene like this has been felt even by the first of poets; nor can the painter represent





THE DEVIL'S BRIDGE.



motion or sound, and without its headlong speed, "rapid as the light"—without its tremendous voice, roaring, howling, and hissing, all in one—a cataract is only half a cataract, even let it be painted on canvass as huge as the mountains; it is little better than a dumb lion fastened to a stake, with his mane, tail, and paws cut off, and all his tusks extracted.

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## FRIBOURG SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

**F**RIBOURG had always been an interesting object to travelers, but its situation and the great difficulty of approach, frequently deterred the timid from visiting it. Since the bridge has been opened, the concourse is immense, and all those who have seen it will allow that, far from exaggerating, we cannot convey an adequate idea of the effect produced by the appearance of the bridge when seen in the morning or evening of a fine summer's day. If you stand in the valley at the place where the river forms a considerable angle, and look in a northern direction along the course of the stream, which is the view given in the engraving, you have the magnificent Fribourg Alps behind you. On the left, you look up the valley of the Sarine, towards the mountains situated at the bottom of the lake of Geneva, with the points of the higher Alps overtopping them, clad with eternal snow. Before you is the view down the valley, with the suspension bridge across it, as is represented in the engraving. The hills receding in the background towards the Jura, finish the splendid panorama.

This bridge has a span from pier to pier of 870 feet, and is suspended at the height of 167 feet above the river which flows under it. Its great height and almost airy lightness, and the picturesque scenery around it, add greatly to the wonder which it excites in the beholder. To give a general idea of it, with the help of a very accurate representation in the annexed engraving, we must draw the attention of those who never visited the highly interesting spot, to the situation of the city of Fribourg.

The small but rapid river, the Sarine, descends from the Fribourg Alps; and after winding along a very beautiful and romantic valley (in the midst of the mountains) to which it gives its name, and traversing the Gruyère country, it flows past the city of Fribourg, and falls into the Aar a little above Aarberg. It turns at a right angle round the base of the rock on which Fribourg is built. The ground here descends towards the river to the south of it, with a very steep slope, and is quite perpendicular on the north-east. The principal part of the town with the cathedral is built along the precipitous side, which rises from 200 to 300 feet above the bed of the river. The width of the valley on this side, at the height of 200 feet, is not above 300 yards; and here the bridge is suspended. The hill on the north-east side of the river rises to a considerable height.



FRIDOLF SUSPENSION BRIDGE.



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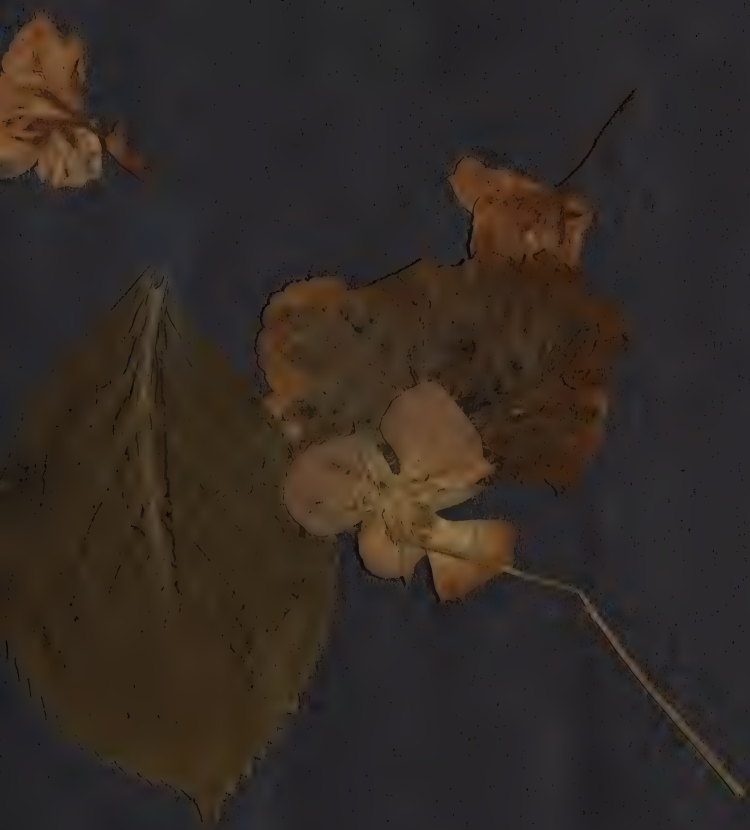
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## SCARBOROUGH CASTLE.



VENERABLE in its ruins, Scarborough Castle, on the coast of Yorkshire, crowns a precipitous rock, whose eastern termination, which advances into the sea, rises about 300 feet above the waters. The principal part of the ancient castle now remaining stands at a considerable distance back from this bold and inaccessible front, but on ground which is very nearly as elevated. It is a huge square tower, still nearly 100 feet high, but the walls of which show, by their ragged summits and by other indications, that its original height must have been considerably greater. Each side is between 50 and 60 feet in length; but, the walls being about 12 feet thick, the space in the interior is only 30 feet square. This inclosed area is now open to the sky; but marks are still discernible of vaultings which had formerly divided the ascent into three stories, each of which must have been about 30 feet from the floor to the ceiling. An immense fire-place still remains on the ground floor; but beneath that there is another apartment, hollowed out under the earth, which is now filled with stones and rubbish. The walls on the outside are faced with hewn stones of a square shape, and are pierced in various places with windows, six feet deep and three broad, formed by semicircular arches resting on strong pillars. This tower was probably the keep of the ancient castle, and, as usual, has been preserved from destruction by its extraordinary solidity and strength, long after time has swept away nearly all the surrounding parts of the building. It stands immediately within the great gate of entrance to the fortress, which is at the western extremity of the inclosure, and of which this tower was the main defense. The access to the promontory from this side is by a steep ascent; and the gate is guarded by a deep fosse or ditch, with a draw-bridge over it. The whole inclosed space comprehends about nineteen acres; and the fosse before the gate is continued along the entire length of the wall leading southward from that point to the sea. As the old feudal stronghold looks down upon the sea on the one hand, it has the town of Scarborough stretched below it and around it on the other.

Scarborough Castle was built about the year 1136, by William, Earl of Albermarle and Holderness, one of the most powerful of the Norman nobility then settled in England. His grandfather, Odo of Campania, had come over with the Conqueror, who had given him one of his own daughters, Adeliza, in marriage. William, surnamed Le Gros, or the Fat, being possessed of extensive estates in Yorkshire, was permitted by King Stephen to build this fortress as a residence and defence for himself against the turbulent and only half-subdued inhabitants of the district. When Henry II. came to the throne, with the view of curbing the power of his fierce nobility, he ordered the demolition of most of those places of strength which, in the preceding reigns, had been erected in all parts of the kingdom; but, on viewing the castle of Scarborough, he was struck with the advantages of its position, which made it quite impregnable in those times; and, instead

RUINS OF SCARBOROUGH CASTLE.





of destroying it, he only seized upon it and declared it the property of the crown. It has ever since remained one of the royal castles; and it is still occupied by a small garrison, consisting usually of a few invalids, who are accommodated in barracks of modern erection.

The castle, after it was taken possession of by Henry II., is stated to have been enlarged and strengthened by that king; and one old chronicler asserts that he entirely rebuilt it. We may suppose from this that the additions which he made to it were very extensive.

The most memorable event in its history is the siege it sustained in the civil wars of the seventeenth century, when it was held for the king by Sir Hugh Cholmley. The parliamentary forces sat down before it in the latter part of the year 1643; but the first assault was made on the 18th of February, 1644, under the command of Sir John Meldrum, a Scotch military adventurer of high renown for courage and ability. By this attack the besiegers obtained possession of the town; but the castle resisted their boldest efforts. They afterwards took up their principal station in the parish church, which is only a few hundred yards from the castle gate; and against this old building, accordingly, the cannonade of the garrison was directed with such effect that the east end of it, forming the choir, was in a short time battered down. A few years ago it still remained a heap of ruins. On the 17th of May, 1645, another attempt was made to storm the fortress, which was again repelled with great slaughter of the assailants, Meldrum himself having received a wound, of which he died on the 3rd of June following. By this time, however, both the strength and resources of the garrison were nearly exhausted; and compelled at length, by disease and famine, which had reduced his men to a few miserable invalids, the governor, on the 22nd of June, surrendered the place on honorable conditions to Sir Matthew Boynton, who had been appointed Meldrum's successor. A pamphlet of the time says, "Many of Sir Hugh's officers and soldiers belonging to the castle were in such a weak condition that some of them were brought forth in sheets—others were helped out between two men—the rest were not very fit to march. The general and common disease was the scurvy. \* \* \* The women in Scarborough could hardly be kept from stoning Sir Hugh." Sir Hugh's wife, a daughter of Sir William Twisden, Bart., of Peckham, in Kent, was with her husband during the whole time of the siege. "She endured much hardship," says Sir Hugh, "yet with little show of trouble; and in the greatest danger would never be daunted, but displayed a courage above her sex; and while the castle was besieged she did not omit to visit the sick persons, and take extraordinary care of them, making such help and provision as the place would afford; insomuch that her maids were so overwrought and toiled with it, that one of them, in the night, stole away, thinking to get into town; but the enemy's guards, taking her for a spy, caused her to return, which was acceptable to her lady; there not being sufficient persons in health to attend the sick. At the surrender of the castle, she procured an article that the garrison at my house at Whitby might be removed, and she have the liberty to live in it; but the captain in possession liked the house so well that he did not quit it until one of the servants died of the plague; and before he durst return again, she unexpectedly (leaving her own daughters behind her at one Mr. Percy Hay's, near Malton) adventured over the moors in a dangerous sea son, they being then covered with thick snow, and so got to the house, and

kept possession, though in a sad condition. Her two sons were beyond sea; and her girls she durst not bring thither in respect of the late illness. She was ill accommodated with all things; the house being plundered, having nothing but what she borrowed, yet her spirit would not submit to complain. And when Sir John Meldrum had sent propositions, with menaces that, if they were not accepted, he would that night be master of all the works and castle, and in case one of his men's blood was shed, would not give quarter to man or woman, but put all to the sword; she conceiving that I would relent in respect of her being there, came to me without any direction or trouble, and prayed me that I would not, for any consideration of her, do aught which might be prejudicial to my own honor or the king's affairs."

A few years after this, Scarborough Castle stood another siege; its governor, Sir Matthew Boynton, the successor, and perhaps the son, of the person of the same name to whom Cholmley had surrendered, having, in 1648, declared for the king. He did not, however, stand out so long as Cholmley had done; and the place fell into the hands of the parliamentary forces on the 19th of December in the same year. This is the last occasion on which Scarborough Castle figures in the English military annals.

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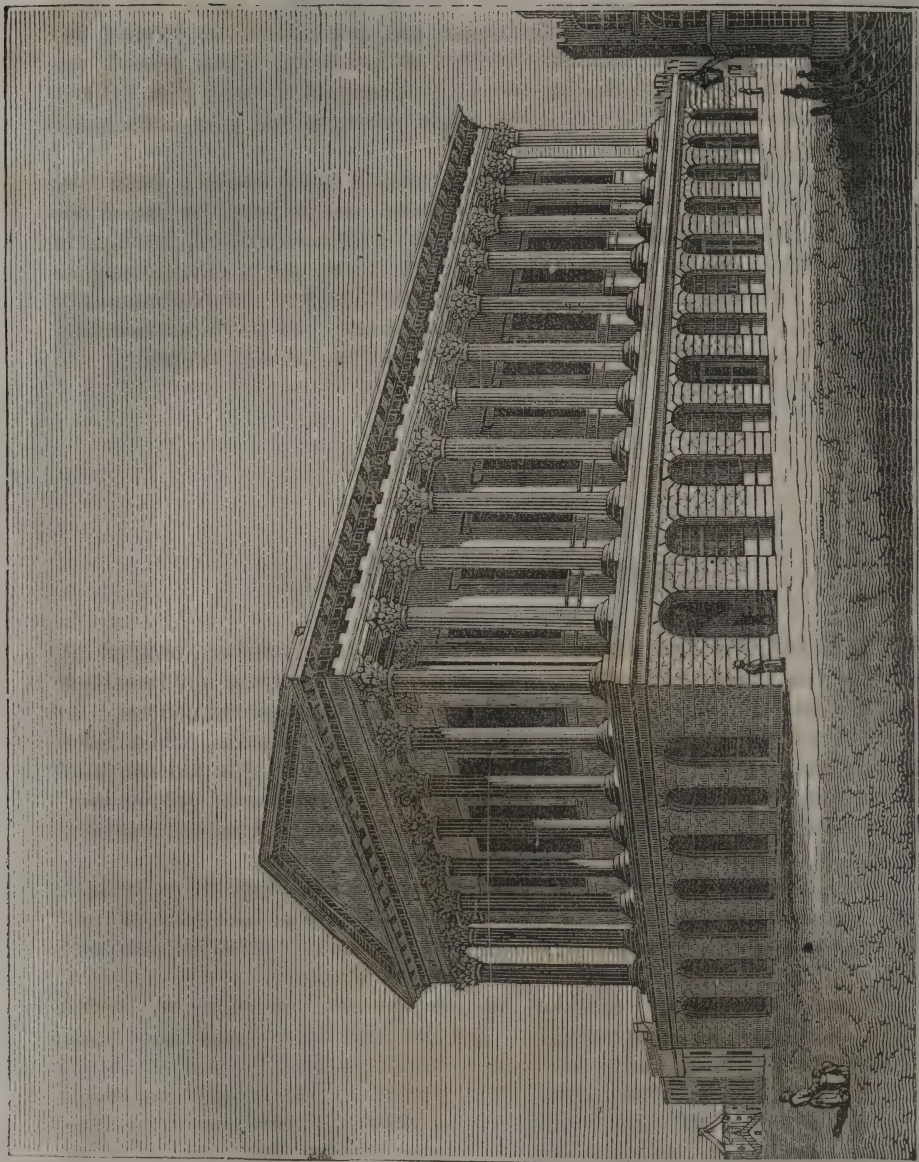
## BIRMINGHAM TOWN-HALL.

**B**IRMINGHAM Town Hall is a magnificent building, erected by the public spirit of the inhabitants of Birmingham for municipal purposes, for public meetings, and for musical performances. In our engraving is exhibited an accurate view of the elevation. The large proportions of the Hall, its commanding height, and its splendid series of Corinthian columns which run completely round upon a rustic arcade, render it not only the most imposing building in Birmingham, but one with which very few modern erections can compete.

The internal arrangement of this building exhibits a large saloon or hall, 140 feet in length, 65 feet wide clear of the walls, and 65 feet high from floor to ceiling, with corridors of communication running along on each side of it on its own level, and staircases leading to the upper corridors to give access to galleries. The corridors are low, the two tiers being within the height of the basement externally. As the Hall is intended principally for musical entertainments, one end of it is occupied by a magnificent organ and surrounding orchestral arrangements. This organ is of enormous dimensions, and cost 3000*l*. Two narrow galleries run along the sides of the Hall, and a large deep gallery occupies the other end; rooms for the accommodation of the performers who may be employed are formed at the upper end of the building and under the orchestra.

The building is lengthened externally to 160 feet by the projection of the arcaded pavement in front. The height of the basement above the causeway is 23 feet,—the columns resting upon its upper surface or plat





TOWN HALL OF BIRMINGHAM.

form are, with their entablature, 45 feet, and the pediment forming the frontispiece, is 15 feet high,—making a total height of 83 feet from the causeway to the acroterium. The columnar ordinance employed is an imitation of the Roman foliated or Corinthian example of the temple of Jupiter Stator; the columns are fluted, and the entablature greatly enriched, though not to the full and elaborate extent of the original. The structure is of brick, faced with Anglesea marble, of which latter material the columns and their accessories are composed. The bricks were made on the spot, of the earth taken out of the foundation. The stones were cut and worked by machinery with steam power, the flutings were made by the same means, and by the application of an invention, it is understood, of one of the contractors.

## BEAUMARIS CASTLE.

**B**EAUMARIS Castle, in the Island of Anglesea, was built by Edward I. about the year 1295, in pursuance of that policy which led him to secure his conquests by every precaution which he might think available. He had subdued the Welsh, after an arduous struggle; the last descendant of the ancient British princes had fallen in battle; and Edward aimed at keeping down for ever the insurrectionary spirit which might be expected to manifest itself whenever there was an opportunity. The sovereignty of Anglesea, had been sturdily contested for above four centuries; it was the chosen seat of the Druids; it was the asylum to which the Britons fled for succor from the victorious Romans; it had been the residence of the British princes, and continued to the last to be their stronghold. The circumstances which immediately preceded the war in which the Welsh were finally subdued, are in substance as follows;—Llewellyn, the last and one of the bravest of the sovereign princes of Wales, was obliged, in the year 1277, to sue for peace from Edward I. The terms on which it was granted were humiliating: besides the payment of large sums of money, the prince was required to come to London every Christmas to do homage to the king for his lands. The following is told by Carte the historian; and it is quoted by Sir Richard Colt Hoare:—

“The barons of Snowdon, with other noblemen of the most considerable families in Wales, had attended Llewellyn to London, when he came thither at Christmas, A.D. 1277, to do homage to King Edward: and bringing, according to their usual custom, large retinues with them, were quartered in Islington and the neighboring villages. These places did not afford milk enough for such numerous trains; they liked neither wine nor the ale of London; and though plentifully entertained, were much displeased at a new manner of living which did not suit their taste, nor perhaps their constitutions. They were still more offended at the crowds of people that flocked about them when they stirred abroad, staring at them as if they had been monsters, and laughing at their uncouth garb and appearance. They



were so enraged on this occasion, that they engaged privately in an association to rebel on the first opportunity, and resolved to die in their own country rather than ever to come again to London as subjects, to be held in such derision; and when they returned home, they communicated their resentment to their compatriots, who made it the common cause of the country."

In the war which ensued, which was a severely contested struggle, Edward advanced into Wales by land, and sent the fleet of the Cinque Ports to Anglesea. When the brother of Llewellyn learned that they had taken that place, he exclaimed, "Llewellyn has lost the finest feather in his tail." The Welsh king was shortly afterwards slain, and when the body was discovered, Edward, says Turner, "sent the head up to London, adorned in derision with a silver crown, that it might be exhibited to the populace in Cheapside, and fixed upon the Tower." Edward's military talents and vigor of mind fitted him for this turbulent age: his policy was in many respects in advance of it; but he retained much of its savage fierceness. The brother of Llewellyn attempting to renew the war, was defeated and taken: he was drawn on a hurdle, hanged, and his amputated head sent to London. In the Chronicles of Hollinshed, under the year 1295, there is the following account:

"The Earl of Warwick, hearing that a great number of Welshmen were assembled together, and lodged in a valley betwixt two woods, he chose out a number of horsemen, with certain cross-bows and archers, and coming upon the Welshmen in the night, compassed them around about, the which, pitching the ends of their spears in the ground, and turning the points against their enemies, stood on the defensive, so as to keep off the horsemen. But the earl having placed his battle so that ever betwixt two horsemen there stood a cross-bow, a great part of the Welshmen which stood at defence in manner aforesaid with their spears, were overthrown, and broken with the shots of the *quarels*, and then the earl charged the residue with a troop of horsemen, and bare them down with such slaughter, as they had not sustained the like loss of people (as was thought) at any one time before. In the mean time, King Edward, to restrain the rebellious attempts of those Welshmen, caused the woods of Wales to be cut down, wherein before the Welshmen were accustomed to hide themselves in time of danger. He also repaired the castles and holds in that country, and builded some new, as the city and castle of Beamarise, with other; so that the Welshmen, constrained through hunger and famine, were enforced within a while to the king's peace."

The erection of the Castle of Beaumaris, though consistent with Edward's policy, was an unnecessary stretch of prudence. He had already broken down the spirit of independence which inspired the native Welsh, without which, as he experienced in Scotland, strongholds are but a slight security. The only notable things which the garrison appears to have done were to quarrel with the country people, under pretence of keeping them quiet, to oppress them with great severity. In consequence, the garrison was withdrawn from the time of Henry VII. to the year 1642, when, the Earl of Dorset being constable, his deputy furnished it with men and ammunition; and it was retained on behalf of Charles I. The first governor of the castle was a Gascon knight, Sir William Pickmore, who was appointed by Edward I. Twenty-four soldiers were allowed for the guard of the castle and town.



FAUNIER'S CASTLE.



During the civil war, the inhabitants of Anglesea agreed to some strongly expressed resolutions in behalf of Charles I. But the garrison of Beaumaris did not hold out long against the parliamentary forces; they however obtained an honorable capitulation. The castle was surrendered to General Mytton, who appointed Captain Evans his deputy.

The motives which led Edward I. to aim at the subjugation of the entire island of Great Britain were chiefly those of military ambition. But the castle and town of Beaumaris are evidence of themselves that he foresaw the benefits which would result from the consolidation of the kingdom, and having subdued the Welsh, he sought to introduce something of civilization amongst them. Notwithstanding the nearness of the castles of Caernarvon and Conway, immense expense and pains were spent—and, as it proved, needlessly spent—on Beaumaris. The town indeed flourished for a time; but the castle was an incumbrance. The castle was the parent of the town, which Edward surrounded with walls, incorporated and endowed with many privileges.

The shape approaches to an oblong square, comprising a case encircling the castle. This outer vallium consists of low but massy embattled walls, flanked by ten circular towers. The principal entrance of the castle faces the sea; within the fortified envelope, equidistant from the walls, is the body of the castle, the height of which far exceeds the envelope, and at a distance appears to rise majestically from it, as from a base. It is nearly quadrangular, with a grand round tower at each angle, and another in the centre of each face. The interior consists of an area, 190 feet square, with obtuse corners. The centre of the north-west side contains a great hall, seventy feet long and twenty-three broad, with a proportionate height; it has five large pointed windows, which form a handsome front to the inner quadrangle. On the eastern side of the area there are the remains of a chapel, the sides of which are ornamented with receding pointed arches. The elegantly groined roof is supported by ribs springing from pilasters, between each of which is a long narrow window. There was a communication between the several parts of the inner court by means of a narrow surrounding gallery, a portion of which is still entire. The ruins of the castle are covered with gilliflowers, but which, as is stated, grow nowhere else in Anglesea.

The castle was erected on lands belonging to several proprietors, whom Edward I. removed to distant places, remunerating them by estates, probably sequestered.

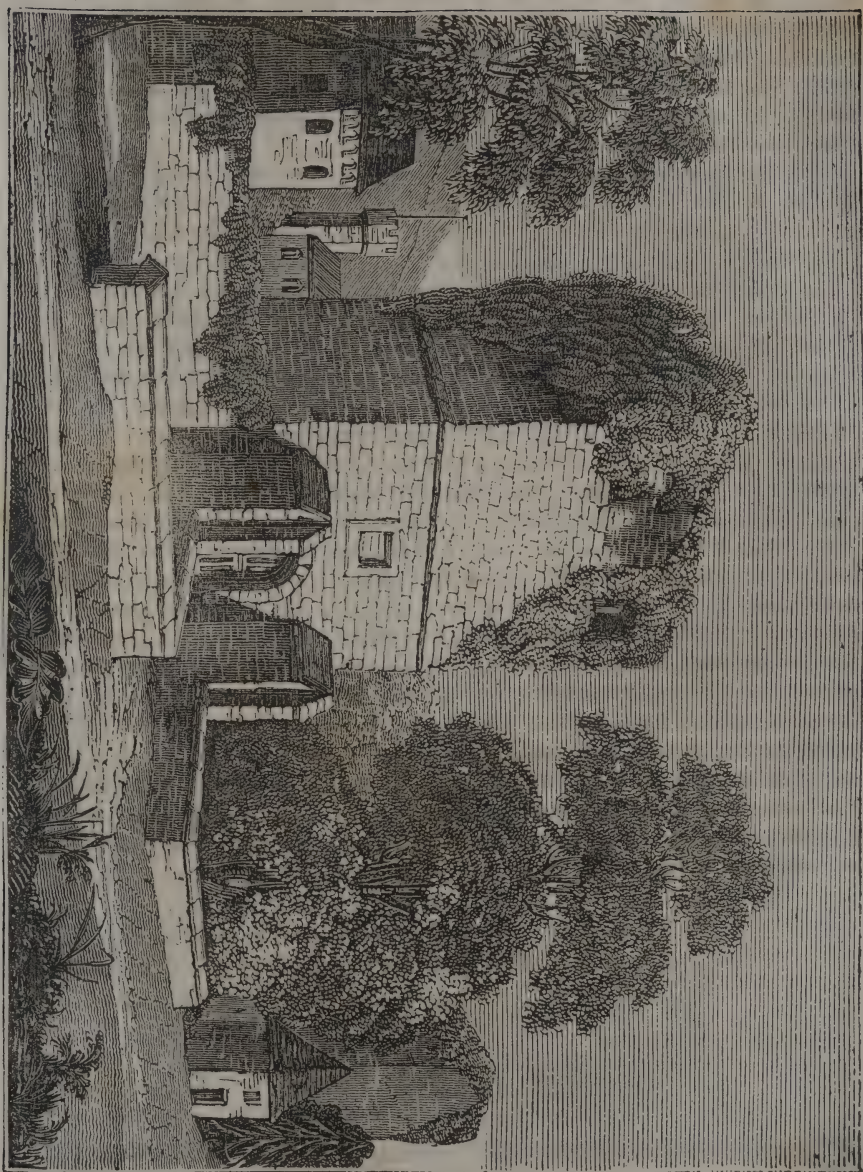
The castle is the property of the crown. Within the walls a tennis-court, fives court, and bowling-green have been formed for the amusement of the inhabitants of Beaumaris.

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## UPNOR CASTLE.



PNOR CASTLE is situated on the western bank of the River Medway, a little below Chatham, on the shore opposite to it. According to Kilbourne, the castle was built by queen Elizabeth, in the third year of her reign, for the defense of the river; “but as a fort,”



RUINS OF UPNOR CASTLE.



says Grose, "this place has never been of much consequence, especially as it was very injudiciously placed; and it has therefore very properly been converted to a powder magazine." It derives its chief interest, perhaps, from the fact that it is one of the last, if not the last, places of defense in England built on the principle of the ancient castles.

It is built chiefly of stone. Its external figure is a parallelogram, much longer than broad, the largest side facing the water. It has two towers at the extremities, the southernmost of which is appropriated to the use of the governor, but on account of its unfitness for his reception he never resides there: the entrance is in the centre of the west side. On the east side, next to the river, are the remains of some stone walls, which seem to have formed a salient angle, like a modern ravelin.

The only period at which this castle proved of any utility was in the reign of Charles the II., in June, 1677, when the Dutch, under the famous Admiral De Ruyter, suddenly appeared at the mouth of the Thames during a protracted negotiation, and detached his Vice-admiral, Van Ghent, with seventeen of his lighter ships and eight fire-ships to sail up the Medway. Van Ghent took the fort of Sheerness with little difficulty, and, after destroying the stores, made dispositions to proceed up the river. In the meantime, Monk, Duke of Albemarle, made every effort that the suddenness of the surprise would admit, to render the attempt abortive. He sunk several ships in the channel of the river, and drew a chain across, behind which he placed the *Unity*, the *Matthias*, and the *Charles the Fifth*,—three large men-of-war that had just been taken from the Dutch, who were then advancing very fast, and, having the advantage of wind and tide, passed through the sunken ships and broke the chain. The three ships that guarded it were instantly in one tremendous blaze; and Van Ghent continued to advance until, with six men-of-war and five fire-ships, he came opposite Upnor Castle; but he there met so warm a reception from Major Scott, the commandant at the castle, and Sir Edward Spragge, who directed the battery on the opposite shore, that he thought it best to draw off his ships, having received considerable damage. On their return, however, they burnt the *Royal Oak*, the *Great James*, and the *Loyal London*. The former was commanded by the brave Captain Douglass, who in the confusion of the day had received no directions to retire, and who perished with his ship. His last words were, "It never shall be said that a Douglass quitted his post without orders."

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## THE JUNGLE COCK.

**S**ONNERAT, the naturalist, maintained with considerable zeal that this bird formed the stock whence most of our races of domestic fowl have proceeded. He concurred in the opinion of Buffon, that most of our varieties of domestic fowl have proceeded from a single type, and that the differences which we perceive amongst them have resulted



JUNGLE FOWL.



from accidents of climate, domestication, and crossings of varieties. Sonnerat, who did not, or would not know of any other species of wild cock than this—for he speaks slightly of the authority of Dampier, who mentions that he saw wild cocks in the Indian Archipelago—naturally enough concluded that in this jungle-fowl he had found the primitive stock. Subsequent inquiries have, however, confirmed the statements of Dampier, not only as to the existence of wild fowl in the Indian Archipelago; but it is also admitted that the *Bankiva* species in Java, and the *Jago* species in Sumatra, more nearly approximate to our common fowl than that now under consideration, and to which Sonnerat's statements refer. Upon the whole, it seems that our varieties of domestic fowl proceed from mixtures of original species. Practical observers arrive at much the same conclusions on this point with scientific naturalists. It is thus, for instance, considered in India that our game cock originated from a mixture of the jungle cock with wild species in Malaya and Chittagong. Altogether, however, it must be admitted that, on this disputed point, very little is actually known; and the domestication of the bird ascends to such remote antiquity, that it seems hopeless to determine the era, and still more hopeless to ascertain the original species with precision. It is proper to add that the jungle fowl are quite distinct in India from the domestic races reared by the natives, which do not in any respect differ from the domesticated varieties in all parts of the world.

The jungle cock is about one-third less in bulk than our common village cock. Its length from the point of the bill to the extremity of the lowered and extended tail, is about two feet four inches; and its height, from the level of the feet to the top of the head, without including the crest, is fourteen inches and a half. The head is furnished with an indented comb, and the wattles resemble those of the domestic cock, but the naked space around the eyes and on the throat is larger than in that bird.

The cry of the jungle fowl is in some measure different from that of the domestic species; but there is much resemblance in their habits and dispositions. The following lively statement on this subject is from "Excursions in India," by Captain Thomas Skinner, published in 1832.

"In some parts of the forest we saw several jungle fowl: they have exactly the same habits as the domestic poultry. The cock struts at the head of his hens, and keeps a strict watch over their safety. Whenever they were disturbed by our attempts upon them, he flew to the highest branch of some tree beyond our reach, and crowed with all his might, while his dames ran into holes and corners to escape our attacks: they are so cunning, that we found it impossible to get within shot of them with all the caution we could use. While intent upon capturing at least one, as we were creeping after them upon our breasts, lying occasionally like riflemen under cover of the unevenness of the ground to catch them *en passant*, we came suddenly upon an ambuscade that very soon put an end to our sport. We were about midway up the face of a hill that was thickly covered by trees, and much clogged by shrubs and creepers that wound in all directions. On reaching the foot of the enemy's position, still advancing upon our breasts, and bending a keen eye upon the birds strutting before us, up rose, with a growl that denoted an offended spirit, (for we had literally touched his tail,) a large black bear; and turning round, looked us in the face with the most undisguised astonishment. It was the most unsought,

as well as the most unpromising introduction I ever met with. There was no time for parley, and getting upon our legs, we at once stood upon the defensive. This sudden metamorphosis completed his surprise, and, yelling louder than before, he set off as fast as he could shuffle from the extraordinary animals that had so unaccountably sprung up before him. We determined that discretion was the better part of valor, and began to retrace our steps, leaving the jungle fowl to benefit by the interruption."

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## THE PULSE.

**E**VERY one knows that among the numerous inquiries and examinations which precede the prescription of a careful physician, the state of the pulse is never omitted; yet as it is probable that few of our readers are acquainted with the reasons for this inquiry, or, what is the same thing, with the facts to be learned from it, we think it may not be uninteresting if we enumerate some of the more prominent ones.

It is almost unnecessary to premise that by the pulse is meant the beat of an artery, and that the one commonly chosen for examination is the radial artery, which beats at the wrist. The first point generally attended to is the number of beats; and since in this, as in all other medical questions, it is necessary to be acquainted with the state of health in order to recognize any deviation from it, we must mention the ordinary frequency of the pulse at different ages. In the new born infant it is from 130 to 140 in a minute, but decreases in frequency as life advances; so that, in a middle-aged adult in perfect health, it is from 72 to 75. In the decline of life it is slower than this, and falls to about 60. It is obvious that if we could suppose a practitioner ignorant of these plain facts, he would be liable to make the most absurd blunders, and might imagine a boy of ten to be laboring under some grievous disease because his pulse had not the slow sobriety of his grandfather's. A more likely error is, to mistake the influence of some temporary cause for the effect of a more permanent disease: thus, in a nervous patient, the doctor's knock at the door will quicken the pulse some fifteen or twenty beats in a minute. This fact did not escape the notice of the sagacious Celsus, who says, "The pulse will be altered by the approach of the physician and the anxiety of the patient doubting what his opinion of the case may be. For this reason, a skillful physician will not feel the pulse as soon as he comes; but he will first sit down with a cheerful countenance, and ask how the patient is—soothing him, if he be timorous, by the kindness of his conversation, and afterwards applying his hand to the patient's arm."—(De Medica, lib. iii. cap. 7.)\*

Granting, however, that these sources of error are avoided, the quickness of the pulse will afford most important information. If, in a person,

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\* The lapse of eighteen centuries has not destroyed the utility, much less the beauty, of the eight books on Medicine bequeathed by Celsus to posterity; they are unrivaled for perspicuous elegance and laconic good sense. Celsus is one of the writers of the Augustine age, and is worthy of the times in which he flourished.



for example, whose pulse is usually 72, the beats rise in number to 98, some alarming disease is certainly present; or, on the other hand, should it have permanently sunk to 50, it is but too probable that the source of the circulation, the heart itself, is laboring under incurable disease, or that some other of the great springs of life are irremediably injured.

Supposing, again, the pulse to be 72, each beat ought to occur at an interval of five-sixths of a second; but should any deviation from this rhythm be perceived, the pulse is said to be irregular. The varieties of irregularity are infinite; but there is one so remarkable as to deserve particular mention. It will happen sometimes that the interval between two beats is so much longer than was expected, that it would seem that one beat had been omitted; in this case the pulse is said to be an intermittent one. When the action of the heart is irregular, the beat of the pulse is so likewise; but it will occasionally happen that the latter irregularity takes place without the former one, from some morbid cause existing between the heart and wrist. It is hardly necessary to observe, that, in all doubtful cases, the physician examines the pulsation of the heart as well that of the wrist,—just as the diligent student, discontented with the narrow limits of provincial information, repairs to the metropolis to pursue his scientific inquiries.

The strength or feebleness of the pulse, its hardness or softness, and innumerable other qualities, might be discussed here; but, from the great difficulty attending any examination of these points, and the technical niceties involved in anything more than a bare mention of them, we omit them. There is one point, however, which it would be unpardonable to pass over in silence; sometimes no pulsation can be felt at the usual part of the wrist. This may proceed from so great a languor of the circulation that it is imperceptible at the extremities; or from the radial artery (the one usually felt) being ossified: or from an irregular distribution of the arteries of the fore-arm.

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## SKETCHES OF LONDON AND VICINITY.

**L**ONDON, a capital whose past history is as large a subject as its existing state, has been often described. The laborious antiquary has delved amongst its registers and tombstones; the light essayist has hurried over its forms “of many colored life.” We have, perhaps, no very satisfactory works upon this vast metropolis in any department, and the reason for this may be sought for in the almost limitless variety of aspects which London presents. London is a world in itself, and its records embrace a world’s history. It has been the chief seat of English power and knowledge and wealth for nearly a thousand years; it is now the great centre of the civilization of all mankind. It contains 2,000,000 of inhabitants; the number of strangers who resort to it daily is equal to the population of many capital cities; the people who are tributary to this metropolis, as the heart of the British Empire, amount to a sixth of the

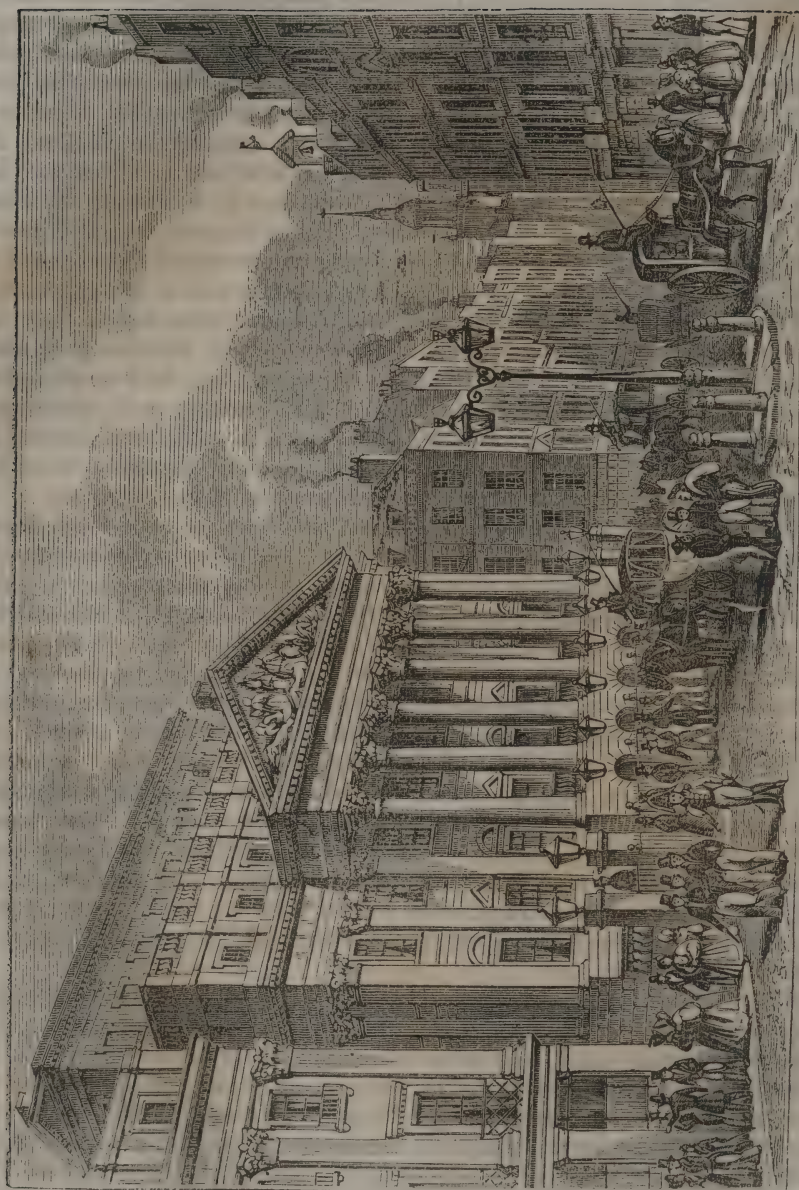
whole human race; there is scarcely a commercial transaction upon the face of the globe which is not more or less connected with or represented by London; the knowledge of its daily transactions goes forth to the uttermost ends of the earth. It contains within itself all that is gorgeous in wealth, and all that is squalid in poverty; all that is illustrious in knowledge, and all that is debased in ignorance; all that is beautiful in virtue, and all that is revolting in crime. Adequately to chronicle and to describe such a city as London, a man should have sounded every depth and shallow of the accumulated facts of the past, and what is more, have plunged into the deepest recesses of the present, and have seen the most complicated movements of living London with his own eyes. This is a task beyond any individual powers. Let any man try to visit all the 12,000 streets of London, and he will find his labor not a light one. Let him apply himself to a more rational object, that of analyzing the moral and physical condition of the inhabitants of one of these streets, and he will find his inquiry traveling into details which are overwhelming from their magnitude and complexity. Let him even take the case of a single family, and undertake to describe all the circumstances upon which they are dependent for the conduct of their lives—their food, their clothing, their supply of water and fuel, their means of communication, their employment, their education, their health, their knowledge of passing events, their social protection, and their obligations to perform certain public duties,—and he will find that such a fraction of London as one family furnishes a subject large enough for the keenest observer to occupy a life in examining.

The Mansion House is the palace of the civic monarch, the Lord Mayor. Here is a busy and important thoroughfare. Opposite is the massive pile of the bank: beside it the agitating scene of the Exchange. Up and down that great highway, Cornhill and Cheapside, there is a continual rush of men and horses and carriages. The cabriolet flies past with dangerous velocity—the omnibus thunders along—the heavy-laden wagon, with its team of heavy horses, drags onwards, blocking for some time some narrow channel, and irritating the impatient pedestrian. This is the central spot of the commerce of the city, and that city a central spot of the commerce of the world. Yet, amid all the bustle and conflict of passion and feeling, what a perfect order and regularity reigns! There is an incessant throng; and if a bar were laid across the street for five minutes, the throng would swell into a crowd, and from a crowd into a mob. But no riots, no disturbances arise. Peace reigns—if such a term be not inappropriate to a scene where, from morning till night, there is a perpetual confusion of sounds.

What salt of life preserves such a body? Does the king of the city, keeping his state within this mansion, hold the reins of government with a firm and vigorous hand, and is his very name a terror to the evil doers? Has he an armed force ready to rush out on all who would disturb the king's peace or seize the property of their neighbors? What hinders the penniless from laying foul hands on the rich? Might not a band of daring fellows suddenly carry off this richly-laden carriage, or, bursting into that shop stocked with jewels, gather all their plunder before a sufficient force could be got together to match them?

In London generally, applying the name to the whole extent of the metropolis, there are, as already stated, about 2,000,000 of people.





THE MANSION HOUSE.



TRIUMPHAL ARCH, QUEEN'S PALACE.



Numbers of this population have grown up, and are growing up, in habits and inclinations which are, unfortunately, more or less opposed to security and order. With such a reflection, it is really marvellous to see how life and property are so completely protected. As for life, it is perfectly secure; for the murders and manslaughters which are produced by sudden outbreaks of drunken or malignant passion, or the aberrations of intellect, are rare in occurrence, and could hardly be restrained by the most perfectly devised police system. And as to robbery, it scarcely enters into any man's thoughts, when he walks about, that he will be deprived of his property by violence. Craft, cunning, imposition, subterfuge are the prime characteristics of London robbery. The master may be robbed by his dishonest servant; the eager tradesman, anxious to "do business," may be imposed upon by the well-dressed or plausible swindler; the simpleton, staring about the streets, or enjoying himself in what to him may be a new scene, a London public-house, may have his vanity excited by artful conversation, be tempted to show how much money he can produce, and in having it carefully put up for him, get brown paper or coppers substituted for bank notes or gold; and the imprudent or the thoughtless, by throwing themselves in the way of temptation, may lose property intrusted to them, and with it, perhaps, their own characters. But the prudent individual may walk about even the worst parts of London by night without danger, unless it be that of having his pocket picked. Yet there are nests of misery and crime in London, the inspection of which by day would give to such an assertion the appearance of being very improbable. The mazes of the Seven Dials, the far famed district of St. Giles, crowded with a half English, half Irish population, Tothill street, leading up from Westminster Abbey, and all the narrow streets and lanes which lie along the Thames below London Bridge, present a startling contrast to the stateliness and grandeur of many of the streets of the "west end." Yet in these places the pedestrian is as safe as in the crowded thoroughfares of Cheapside, Fleet street, the Strand, Holborn, or Piccadilly, at least by day; the only difference being, that he may see much that may move his pity or offend his taste. Not even the long narrow lane which runs up from the bottom of Holborn Hill, (known as Field lane and Saffron Hill,) which has for many a day borne a most notorious character, and the very sight of which, to a timid stranger, as he gazes at its narrow entrance, has a suspicious and deterring effect, dares to uphold its bad preëminence of being able to beard the law.

All this security is obtained in the midst of a varying population, where numbers of the youth of both sexes are growing up in crime and ignorance, and with whose minds healing principles of morals or religion seldom or never come in contact; where not a night passes over in which unhappy wretches may not be found whose follies or misfortunes leave them houseless, unable to pay the threepence or fourpence which would procure them the shelter of a cellar; and where numbers of degraded and indolent creatures prowl about, who prefer the gains of pauperism and imposture to the returns of honest industry. And if such, the philanthropist may exclaim, be the triumphs of civilization in the midst of materials so rough and unformed, what may not reasonably be expected when education, and the influence of morals and religion, are fairly at work; when the wretched prison discipline is improved, and benevolence has done its best to alleviate

the miseries which spring from bad passions indulged, the culture of the mind neglected, and evil habits contracted.

Such a reflection is warranted by the fact, that the improved state of the metropolitan police is very recent. Nearly 600 years ago a statute was passed, (in the year 1285, the 13th of Edward I.) in which, on account of the murders and robberies taking place in the city, it was enjoined that "none be so hardy as to be found going or wandering about the streets of the city after the curfew tolled at St. Martin's-le-Grand, (the present busy site and scene of the general post-office,) with sword or buckler, or any other arms for doing mischief, or whereof evil suspicion might arise; nor in any manner, unless he be a great man, or other lawful person of good repute, or their certain messenger, having their warrant to go from one to another with lantern in hand." Yet upwards of 450 years afterwards (in 1744) the lord mayor and aldermen went up with an address to the king, in which it was stated that "divers confederacies of evil disposed persons, armed with bludgeons, pistols, cutlasses, and other dangerous weapons, infest not only the private lanes and passages, but likewise the public streets and places of usual concourse; and commit most daring outrages upon the persons of your majesty's good subjects, whose affairs oblige them to pass through the streets, by terrifying, robbing, and wounding them; and these facts are frequently perpetrated at such times as were heretofore deemed hours of security; that the officers of justice have been repulsed in the performance of their duty, some of whom have been shot at, some wounded, and others murdered, in endeavoring to discover and apprehend the said persons."

During the first half of the eighteenth century the streets of London were far from being secure. Gay, in his "Trivia; or, the Art of Walking the Streets of London," which was first published in the year 1712, says:

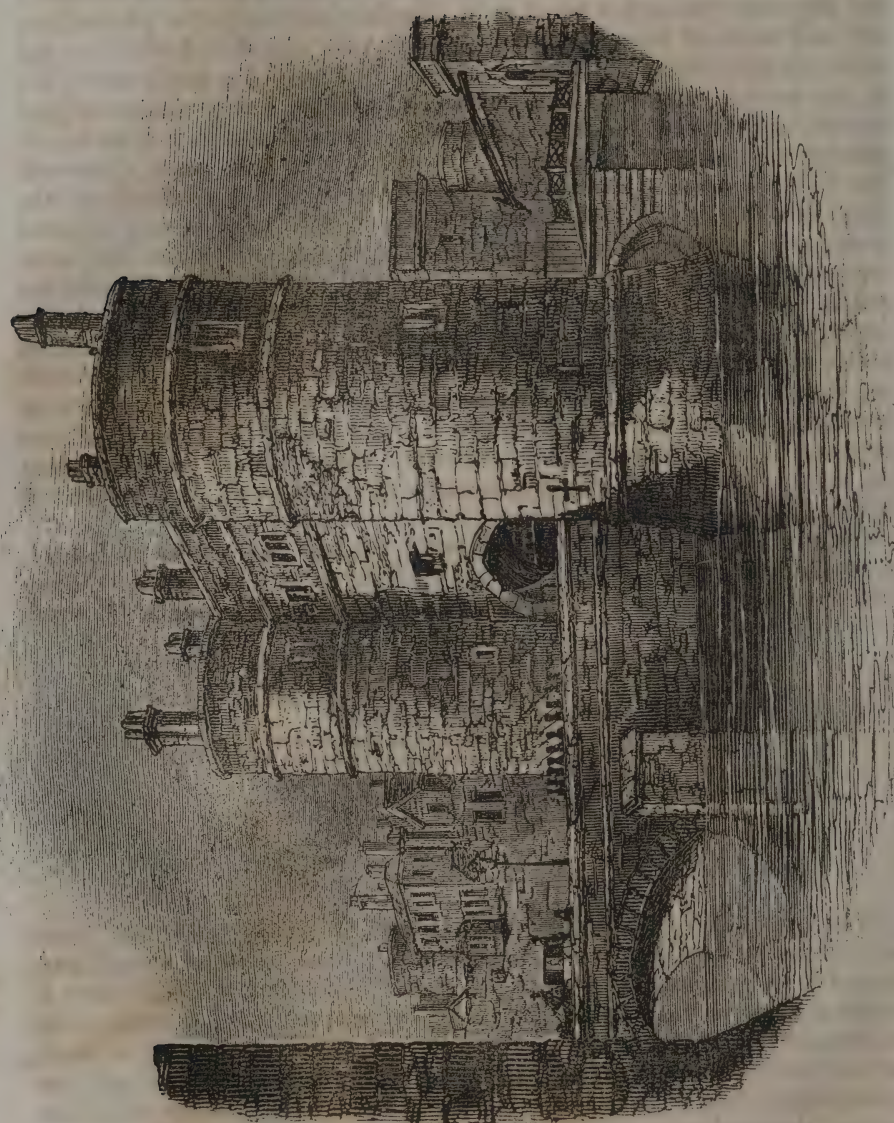
"Where Lincoln's Inn, wide space, is rail'd around,  
Cross not with venturous step: there oft is found  
The lurking thief, who, while the daylight shone,  
Made the walls echo with his begging tone;  
That crutch, which late compassion moved, shall wound  
Thy bleeding head, and fell thee to the ground.  
Though thou art tempted by the linkman's call,  
Yet trust him not along the lonely wall;  
In the mid-way he'll quench his flaming brand,  
And share the booty with the pilfering band.  
Still keep the public streets, where oily rays,  
Shot from the crystal lamp, o'erspread the ways."

The square of Lincoln's-Inn-Fields is now, perhaps, as safe at all hours as any part of London; but, for a good many years after this time, it continued to be notorious for the dangers which Gay describes. This arose in a great measure from its vicinity to a nest of profligacy, occupying the space now lying between the Great and the Little Turnstiles, on the south side of Holborn, where a formidable crew of the most abandoned and desperate characters were congregated together, forming a body which the arm of the law hardly dared to touch. When this colony of criminals was rooted out, and the square was properly lighted and watched, the dangers for which it had been so long infamous were at an end.

What would Gay, who advises the pedestrian at night to

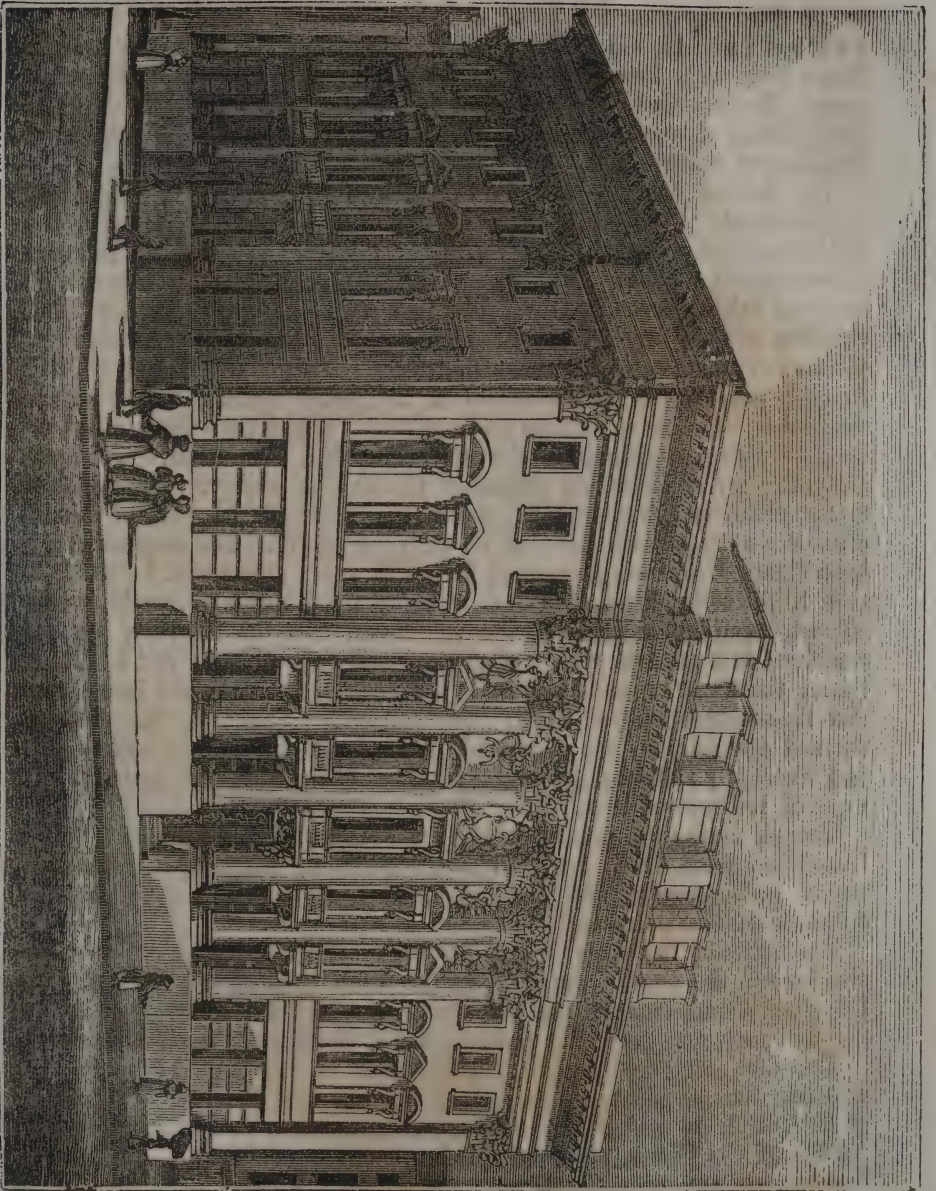
"— keep the public streets, where oily rays,  
Shot from the crystal lamp, o'erspread the ways,"





TOWER OF LONDON.





GOLDSMITH'S HALL.



have thought of the present gas-light illumination? His description applies to about a thousand lamps, which were all that were hung out all over London until the year 1736; and these were kept burning only till midnight; and for one-half of the year, namely, from Lady-day till Michaelmas, were never lighted at all: nay, even during the winter months, there were ten nights every moon, from the sixth day after new to the third day after full moon, on which, however cloudy the sky, not a wick lent its feeble aid to dissipate the obscurity. In fact, the thousand lamps were only kept burning for about 750 hours in the course of the year. The streets of a town left in this state were necessarily delivered over, during a great part of every twenty-four hours, to the uncontrolled dominion of robbers and other violators of the law.

The second half of the eighteenth century presents a considerable improvement. The streets were beginning to be paved generally, thoroughfares were widened, the west end of London was extended, and many improvements effected, which, along with somewhat more vigorous efforts to suppress existing evils, led gradually to security. Fielding, whose official situation at Bow Street doubtless often supplied him with materials for his pictures of character and manners, wrote a pamphlet in 1751, in which he strongly pointed out the feebleness of the police system, and the almost unchecked boldness of thieves and robbers. About fifty years afterwards another police magistrate of the metropolis, Mr. Colquhoun, drew a most extraordinary and startling picture of the state of society. His two works on the police of the metropolis, and on the state of the port of London, created a very great impression on the public mind. His statements have been charged with exaggeration; but, with every abatement, he exposed a most frightful condition of things. Captains and mates of vessels, revenue officers, reputable tradesmen, the watermen, and the laborers, appeared combined in a general system of plunder and depredation; and in the city (using the word in its largest sense) thieves were organized into classes, and flash-houses existed, which were not only winked at, but absolutely deemed necessary by the police, where receivers and thieves congregated, and where, by skillful negotiation, a man might get his own again, on payment of redemption money.

Though during the present century the improvements suggested by Mr. Colquhoun have been, many of them, gradually adopted, the war interrupted their progress, and many of the evils mentioned above existed till within these few years back.

The series of buildings termed the Tower of London occupies an extensive area to the east of the city, on the north bank of the Thames. The following description, though the terms in which it is conveyed are not rigidly exact, may convey a general idea of the form of the Tower:—

The area may be termed a circle, which is described by a wide and spacious ditch, or moat, running round the walls, and the river. The center of this circle is occupied by the most conspicuous and the most ancient portion of the Tower, the citadel or keep, which was the original Tower of London, and was occupied as the royal palace. This is a massive quadrangular building, having a turret at each angle rising considerably above the roof. It is termed the White Tower. The White Tower stands in the center, or nearly so, of a square or inclosure, called the Inner Ward; the buildings composing which are appropriated to the Ordnance Office, the

ancient and modern armories, store-houses, resident governor's house, &c. The Inner Ward is encircled by the Outer Ward, a narrow street, or rather lane, running round the Tower, which is appropriated to offices, residences, barracks, &c., and in which are several public houses. The walls have cannon mounted at the embrasures. Within the walls is comprised a superficies of twelve acres and five roods. The exterior circumference of the ditch measures 330 yards, independently of its sloping banks; and, on the side of Tower Hill, its width is at the top from thirty to forty-two yards: on the side next the river, from which it is separated by a spacious raised wharf, or platform, its width is from forty to fifty yards.

The principal entrance into the Tower is at the west angle, through a series of gates (four in number) leading through an inclosure, and over a stone bridge thrown across the ditch or moat. Two of these gates, the third and fourth, are flanked by round towers. One of the engravings represents the bridge and fourth gateway, which is termed the Byward Tower. The little drawbridge conducts across the ditch, through two gateways, to the wharf on the Thames. At the east end of this wharf there is a gate which gives egress from the Tower, from which circumstance the lower part of the Outer Ward and the wharf is in considerable use as a thoroughfare.

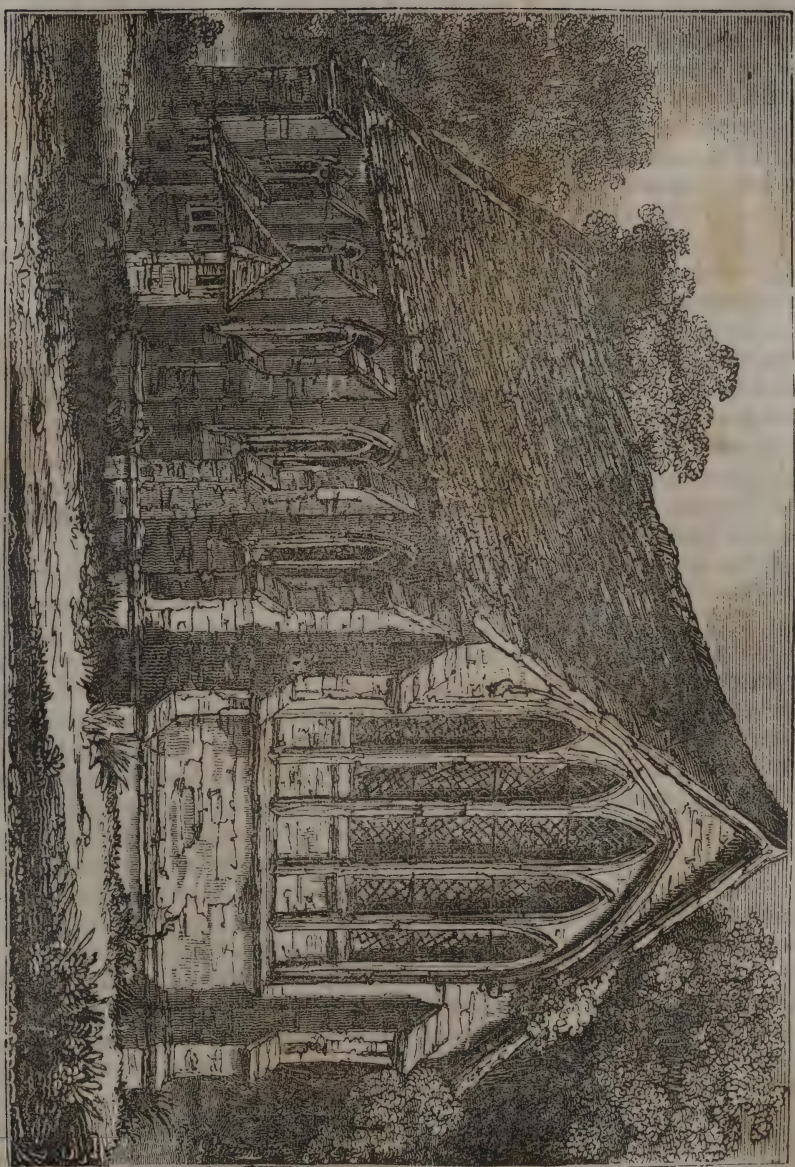
At the principal entrance to the Tower, on the west, there were formerly considerable outworks, which were enclosed by a small moat, forming what is termed a barbican, or barbican. This was the post of an advanced guard, where a porter was stationed to keep "watch and ward," and to announce in due form all state arrivals; and where strangers were detained until their business was made known to the governor. These feudal ceremonies were observed down to the reign of James I., when they gradually fell into disuse.

The royal fortress has lost nearly all its distinctive marks. Its old terrors as a state-prison are now dead; and with the exception of being still the repository of the regalia and the records, it is become merely an arsenal and a garrison. As an arsenal it is the most important in the empire, being the head-quarters from whence issues the direction of all military stores; but for every other purpose which it now serves, the remaining offices within it might be removed, and the site given up to the encroaching demands of a busy commerce. Its vicinity to the bustle and traffic of the city and river detracts greatly from the picturesque effect of the Tower, though to the reflective observer it teaches a lesson worth infinitely more than mere picturesque effect. The contrast speaks of the mighty change that has passed over society. From the river, however, the view is very fine. And on all sides, the citadel or keep, with its four turrets, are seen rising above the mass of buildings which envelop them. But on the north-west side, next to the city, the walls appear to have built on them a number of mean-looking structures, which give to the Tower, from this point of view, the appearance of being a congeries of buildings brought together without much regard to method or order. On the other side the lofty massive warehouses of St. Katherine's Docks seem almost to overtop the fortress. "Everywhere," says an eloquent writer, "in and about this ancient abode of royal state, neglect has taken place of admiration, vulgar industry has come in the room of courtly sport, and in many instances squalor has usurped the old inheritance of splendor. Even here, however,





OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE CLUB HOUSE.



GUILDHALL, CHICHESTER.



there is a lesson which is cheering as well as moral: the place where plots were aforetime hatched, as well against the safety of the kings of England as against the liberties and lives of their subjects—where patriotism has been immured from the light of the sun—and where blood, too pure and ardent in its love of man for the age, has been spilt, is now devoted to the peaceful, the exhilarating and the enriching labors of commerce. Royalty has sped westward, and all that is called fashionable in life has followed; but old father Thames still sweeps along by the Tower, and the burden of his every wave is provision to a thousand of the human race. The great may shift their places of abode, and alter the forms of their observances; but wheresoever Nature places the grand elements of utility, thither will mankind throng and prosper."

It has been contended that the Tower of London is of Roman origin. The controversy, which is of an antiquarian nature, need not be introduced here. Mr. Bayley is decidedly of opinion that there is no evidence whatever for such a conclusion; and Messrs. Britton and Brayley go no farther than supposing that the site might have been occupied by the Romans as a station for a military encampment or fortress. They say, "That the Londinium of the Romans was at once a fortress, a fort, and a municipium, is attested by the best informed historians and antiquaries; and that the site of the present Tower would be the most likely spot to be chosen for a place of defense, is deducible from its situation. It is a tract of land gently raised above the river, the Essex marshes, and those on the opposite side of the Thames, where a fortification was afterwards formed by the Saxons, and called South-Wark."

But the creator of the Tower as a palace was undoubtedly Henry III. He bestowed great labor and expense in adorning the interior and extending the fortifications. Two successive similar accidents occurred to the walls and gates which he erected. When first erected they fell down, and were destroyed; and on being reconstructed met with a similar disaster. This was in 1240 and 1241. The cause of these accidents was probably the defective nature of the foundations. The citizens, who regarded the Tower with a jealous eye, and were suspicious of everything done to it, as indicating the power of the sovereign and their weakness, rejoiced at this repeated destruction. Popular belief ascribed the accidents to the interference of Thomas à Becket, the reputed guardian of the city, who was supposed to have risen from his grave for the purpose. The accidents have also been ascribed to earthquakes, though without any appearance of probability. Henry resided in the Tower during a large portion of his troubled reign. "Indeed, to him," says Mr. Bayley, "the Tower owed much of the splendor and importance which it possessed in early ages; and to his time may be ascribed the erection of some of the most interesting of the buildings that are now extant. The records of that era, which abound with curious entries, evincing Henry's great and constant zeal for the promotion of the fine arts, contain many interesting orders which he gave for works of that kind to be executed in different parts of the Tower. The royal chapels there, as well as the great hall and the king's chamber of state, are subjects of frequent and curious mention."

The last additions to the Tower considered to be of any importance were made by Edward I. Whatever has been subsequently done has consisted of repairs and reëdifications.

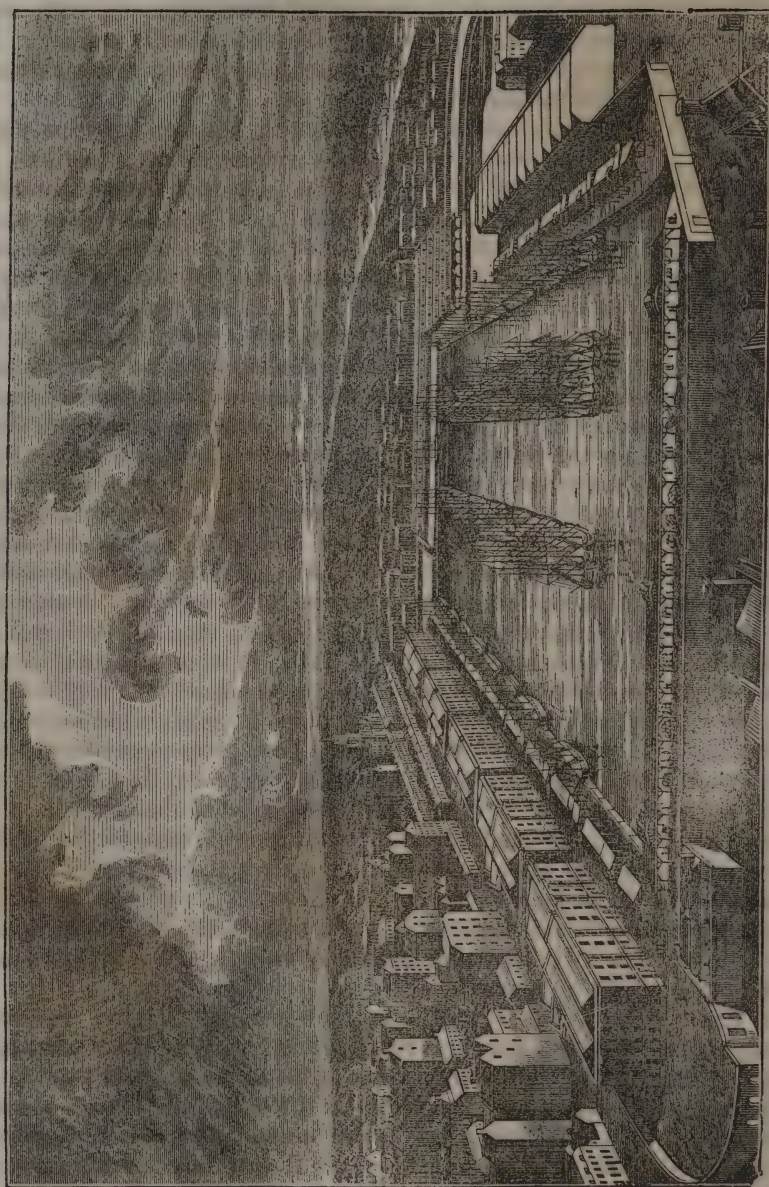
By the time of Henry VIII. the Tower had been falling into disuse as a royal residence, being only used on state occasions and at intervals of alarm. As a state prison, however, it rose into a horrid celebrity during Henry's reign, which character was tolerably well sustained during the reigns of his two daughters, and of those of the Stuarts. The old ceremonies of holding a court in the Tower, and proceeding in state through the city to Westminster previous to a coronation, were kept up, with some variations, till the reign of James II., when they were finally omitted. All the domestic apartments in the palace were taken down during James' reign, and that of William and Mary.

But in every reign great attention was paid to keeping the Tower in a state of repair. Various surveys and reports were made, describing its existing state and condition at the time, and pointing out the repairs which were requisite to be done. On the junction of the two kingdoms under James I. the rising spirit of commerce began to fill the port of London, and encroachments were made on the Tower precincts. By a report made in 1620, it appears that the Tower, which is set forth as having been fortified not only within the walls, ditches, and wharf, but care also taken in the Minories for the lodging of the principal officers, had, through the evil example and toleration of some lieutenants, been much encroached upon; whereby the limits of the Tower, and of those other habitations and store-houses appointed for the public use, were perverted to private profit, "the splendor and magnificence of the said royal castle being by that means defaced, and the place itself, as it were, besieged in the wharf, ditches, and liberties thereof." Various alterations took place at this and subsequent times, for the purpose of remedying evils which were complained of.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century the Tower had been greatly neglected; the ditch was choked and looked like a stagnant pool, and the fortifications were out of repair. But in 1792, in consequence of apprehensions which were entertained, great exertions were made to put it into a suitable state of defence; the ditch was cleared out, and the water once more admitted to flow in from the Thames; flood-gates were constructed, and the walls and parapet of the counterscarp were repaired. It is now kept in a clean and efficient state, and though, from the number of old houses within it, and on the walls or parapet, it could not stand a modern cannonading with the destructive engines now employed, which would reduce it to ruin in an hour or two, it must have been a place of considerable strength formerly; and even now it could withstand an irregular assault. The visitor who has not seen a fortified city may regard the Tower as a representation of one in miniature.

The White Tower, though constituting, in fact, the original Tower of London, and having been the royal residence, is not open to the inspection of the general visitor. Under the basement floor are capacious vaults; the interior consists of three lofty stories, divided longitudinally, from the base to the summit, by a wall seven feet in thickness. The first or basement floor over the vaults, besides two spacious rooms, used as store-houses, contains a singular apartment, which appears to have been originally intended for a prison. It occupies the south-east corner of the floor; the walls were sixteen feet thick; light was admitted by four narrow loopholes, which are now, however, widened to the extent of four feet. In this dungeon it is traditionally, but not authentically, stated that Sir Walter Raleigh





DOCKS OF LONDON.





HUNGERFORD MARKET.



was confined, and that it was here that he wrote his celebrated "History of the World." The great majority of the state prisoners were not confined in the White Tower, but in a tower at the north-west side of the inner ward, now used as a mess-room of the officers of the garrison, and also in other towers round the inner ward. But prisoners were confined in the dungeon on the basement floor of the White Tower during the reign of Queen Mary, as is evident from the inscriptions written on the walls.

The entire White Tower may be termed a store-house, one portion being reserved for armories, containing many thousand stands of arms, the other portion being used as a Record store. The military stores comprise gunpowder, armorers' tools, small arms, cavalry and nautical weapons, &c.

At the north-west extremity of the pavement in front of the Grand Storehouse is the church, or chapel, of the Tower, which was erected in the time of Edward I. It is supposed to occupy the site of a chapel still more ancient. It is a low edifice, void of all ornament, without buttress or battlement, but having a small tower at the west end, surmounted by a bell-turret. The dimensions of this church are sixty-six feet in length, fifty-four feet in breadth, and twenty-four feet from the floor to the roof. The chief interest of the chapel arises from its being the resting-place of many illustrious persons, who either died in the Tower, or were decapitated on Tower Hill.

Here lie Gerald Fitzgerald, ninth Earl of Kildare, and Lord Deputy of Ireland—the representative of one of the bravest and proudest of the Anglo-Hibernian families—who being committed to the Tower on a charge of treason, died of a broken heart; Anne Boleyn, the unfortunate, and Katherine Howard, the guilty wife of Henry VIII., with several of their friends and relations; Thomas Cromwell, the instrument, favorite, and victim of Henry; the Duke of Somerset, Northumberland, and Lady Jane Grey, with her husband; the Duke of Norfolk, who was beheaded for aspiring to the hand of Mary, queen of Scots; his son, the Earl of Arundel; the brave but rash favorite of Elizabeth, the Earl of Essex; and, amongst others, three of the Scotch lords who suffered for the rebellion of 1745.

The armories in the Tower may be described as three; the "Horse Armory," "Queen Elizabeth's Armory," and the "Small-arms Armory," in which are piled immense stores of small arms ready for immediate issue. The first two armories are repositories of ancient weapons and armor kept for exhibition—the third not merely for exhibition but use.

A few years ago the state of indiscriminate confusion in which the collection of ancient weapons and armor was exhibited, and the startling names and uses which were assigned them, was a subject of regret or ridicule to intelligent persons. Dr. Meyrick, in his work on Ancient Armor, which was published in 1824, called public attention to it; and on his representations government accepted his offer of gratuitously arranging the collection in historical order. A building was erected in 1825 for the purpose of containing the equestrian figures. The improvement which has been introduced into the ancient armories has in some measure been extended to the guide-book which is sold to visitors at the Tower. But the spectator is still told, *viva voce*, a few of the old strange stories, which perhaps habit has rendered too familiar to be easily forgotten.

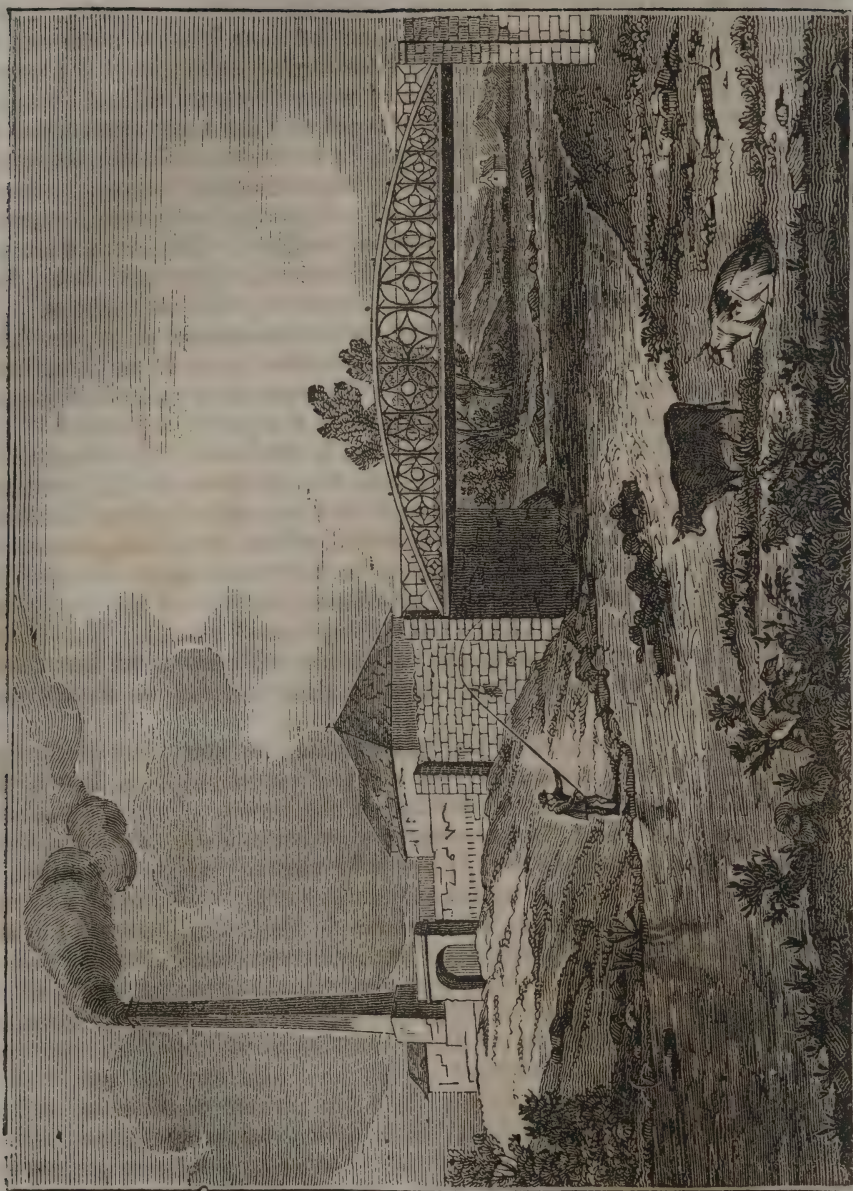
The commerce of the port of London, which had been gradually increas-

ing during the first half of the eighteenth century, outgrew in the second half the existing accommodation of the harbor. The "Legal Quays"—quays at which vessels were allowed to land their cargoes, and at which Custom-house officers were stationed—continued the same in number and extent as in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; and though to these were added a number of "Sufferance Wharfs," they were altogether inadequate to the wants of the shipping. The port, at particular seasons, was often nearly blocked up by fleets of merchantmen, many of them lying at anchor in the middle of the stream, and discharging their cargoes into lighters and barges. The only dock at that time was a small basin on the south side of the river, called the Greenland Basin, (since enlarged, and the name altered into the Commercial Docks) which was used only by a few vessels in the Greenland fishery. The warehouse accommodation, too, at the legal quays and wharfs, was quite insufficient for the purposes of a trade and commerce, expanded with extraordinary and almost unexampled rapidity. The quays were frequently covered with sugar hogsheads piled six and eight high; bales, barrels, boxes, and bags were to be seen heaped together in confusion. At the seasons when the East and West India merchantmen arrived, the delay in the permission of the Custom House authorities to vessels to break bulk, and discharge cargoes—delay caused by the want of accommodation—was often most harrassing, as well as expensive to the parties concerned.

Along with this want of accommodation in the harbor, there existed a system of pillage and depredation, which, though it was in full operation only fifty years ago, we at the present day can scarcely think credible. The main body of depredators was composed of the lightermen, watermen, and laborers; but not in a few instances their practices were winked at and shared in by some of the revenue officers, numbers of the crews, and sometimes too by the mates and even the captains of vessels. These were backed by a host of receivers, who, either as publicans or as keepers of shops for the sale of marine stores, metal, and rags, carried on an extensive business in stolen property.

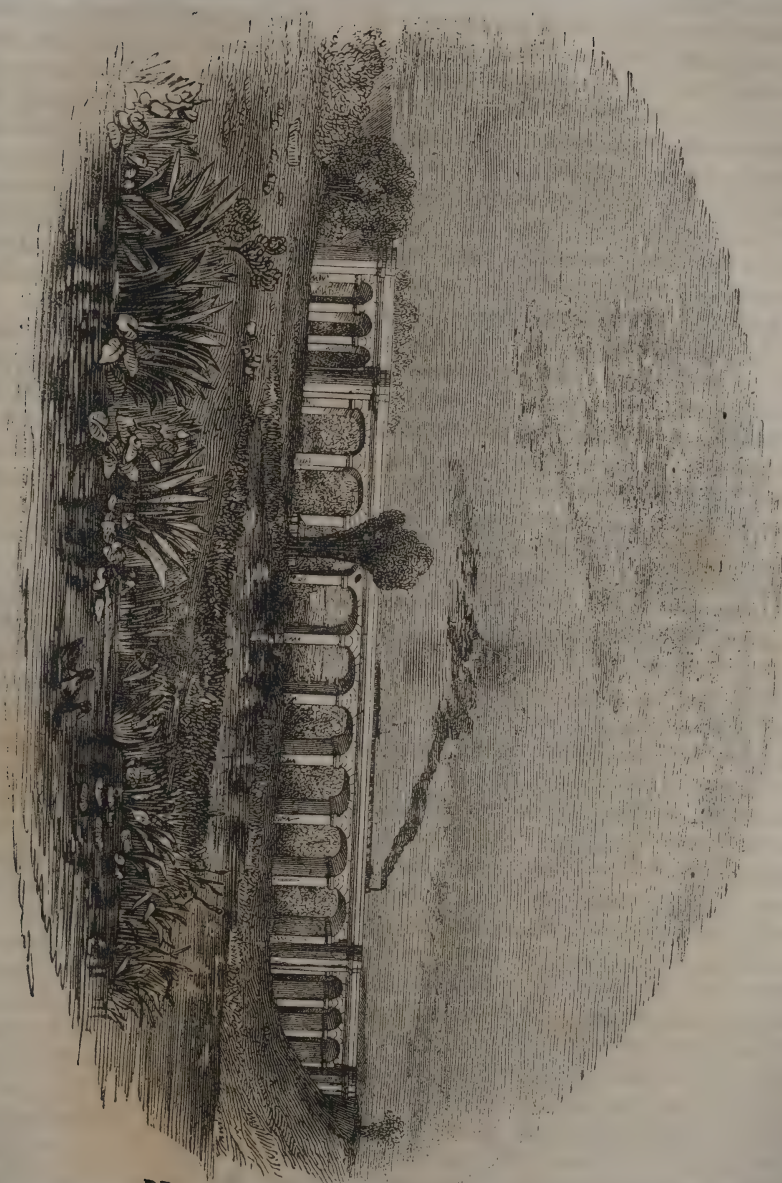
These are but specimens of the way in which the commerce of London suffered, and which, along with the want of accommodation, led to the establishment of the Thames Police and of the Docks. Yet it is astonishing to remark how long the annoyances were borne before remedies were provided. The merchants of London held meetings about the matter in 1793; and Parliament took up the subject in 1796, by instituting a formal inquiry. Nothing, however, was done as to the establishment of docks till 1799, partly owing to dissensions among the merchants as to the proper mode of carrying out their plans, and partly to the great opposition which was made by wharfingers and others interested in keeping the shipping wholly in the river. The West India merchants, who were the greatest sufferers from pillage, determined on having docks for their own trade; and were powerful enough to get their bill for the construction of the WEST INDIA DOCKS passed in 1799, in which was a compulsory clause compelling, for a certain period, all the West India vessels to go into the docks. In the following year, 1800, the other merchants got the bill passed for the establishment of the LONDON DOCKS, (or rather Dock, for the smaller Dock was not made for many years afterwards,) and in it, also, was a compulsory clause, requiring, for a certain period, all vessels laden with certain kinds of cargoes—wine, brandy, &c.—to enter. The





ELGIN GAS WORKS.

RAIL ROAD VIADUCT.



DD



bill for making the EAST INDIA DOCKS was passed in 1803. Nothing farther was done in the way of establishing Wet Docks, with the exception of converting the Greenland Basin into the Commercial Docks, until 1827, when the ST. KATHERINE'S DOCKS were begun, which were opened towards the end of 1828, their construction having been carried on with extraordinary rapidity.

Some idea of the excitement produced by the supposed diversion of the shipping from the river into the docks may be obtained from the fact that the sum demanded as compensation (without reckoning the purchasing of land and houses, which cost the London Dock proprietors especially an enormous sum) was nearly 4,000,000*l.* sterling. But of this only 677,382*l.* was paid, all the rest being disallowed. The government bought the legal quays for 486,087*l.*, and granted, as compensation to persons having vested in erections, in the "mooring chains" of the harbor, a sum of 138,791*l.* The amount paid out of the consolidated fund, by virtue of the several acts for improving the Port of London, and for constructing docks, was, including the purchase of the legal quays, 1,681,685*l.*

We may commence our inspection of the docks with those last constructed and nearest to London—the St. Katherine's. For many years great jealousy and precaution were exercised at the other docks in the admission of strangers and visitors, who were required to produce tickets, or orders for admission from a director, at the gates. But all this is now done away; the gates of the different docks are freely open during working hours to the passing stranger, the vigilance of the gate-keepers, and of the dock constables or watchmen, being considered sufficient for the protection of the varied and valuable property within.

Although the different docks have each their characteristics, they may be described generally as basins for the reception of shipping, surrounded by warehouses and enclosed by walls. The St. Katherine's Docks lie immediately below the tower of London. The appearance of this establishment differs in many respects from that of the other docks. Beauty has been sacrificed to utility. Here are no spacious quays, nor long ranges of warehouses; and though the area enclosed is twenty-four acres, the place has a look of being crowded and confined. But the warehouses make up in height and depth what they want in length. They are six stories high, and are massive and capacious: the vaults below are extensive depositories. The ground-floors of the warehouses towards the docks, are eighteen feet high, open and supported by pillars, a contrivance by which labor and space are saved, for vessels in the docks can come close to the warehouses, and discharge their cargoes directly into them, without the necessity of the goods being laid down on a quay in their transit. The docks, of which there are two, with an entrance-basin, are capable of containing from 150 to 160 ships, besides craft. The lock leading from the river is 195 feet long and 45 feet broad, and is crossed by a swing bridge, 23 feet wide. The depth of the water at spring tides is 28 feet in the lock, and thus ships of 600 and 800 tons can come up the river with a certainty of admission into the docks. Altogether, though the St. Katherine's Docks are deficient in extent or spaciousness, as compared with the others, the solidity of the buildings, the completeness and ingenuity of the mechanical apparatus and arrangements, and the bustle and activity within, are calculated to make a strong impression on the visiter's mind.

From St. Katherine's Docks we enter, crossing Nightingale Lane, the London Docks. This is a magnificent establishment; it covers upwards of 100 acres of ground, and cost in its construction about 3,000,000*l.* sterling. There is cellarage here for nearly 60,000 pipes of wine, and the tobacco warehouses can hold 24,000 hogsheads. The two docks, the larger and the smaller, can accomodate 800 ships. From the extent of the place, and the capacity of its warehouses (which are inferior in height and massive ponderousness to those of the St. Katherine's, though imposing from their range,) there is less of bustle and seeming confusion than in the docks which we had previously inspected.

From the London to the West India Docks there is a walk of about a mile and a half. If the extent of the London Docks surprised us, that of the West India Docks will astonish still more. The entire ground occupied by them is 295 acres! This includes the canal across the Isle of Dogs, made by the corporation of the city of London at the same time that the West India Docks were constructing; the object of it was to enable vessels to avoid the circuit of the river, those availing themselves of it being required to pay a toll. But the speculation proved unsuccessful, and the canal was sold to the West India Dock Company, who have turned it into a dock for wood-laden vessels. There have been at one time in these docks, on the quays, under the sheds, and in the warehouses, as much as 20,000,000*l.* worth of colonial produce;—sugar, coffee, rum and wine, mahogany, dyewoods, &c. &c. The West India Docks have been an exceedingly successful speculation—the shareholders receiving for many years an annual dividend of ten per cent., while, at the same time, a large sum was accumulating as a reserve fund. Competition has lowered the rate of profit.

The East India Docks at Blackwall, though inferior in extent to the London and West India, are yet sufficiently capacious. They are surrounded by lofty walls. Both the West India and the East India Docks have two basins, termed Import and Export docks, their names denote their uses. "Nothing," says Baron Dupin, "appears more simple than the idea of forming separate docks for the loading and unloading of importations and exportations: yet infinite as the advantages which it affords are, in preventing confusion and the frauds which it naturally produces, the English constructed docks for more than a century before this idea struck them." The East India Import Dock has a superficies of nineteen acres, the Export ten, and the basin three: having to receive large vessels, they were constructed so as to have never less than twenty-three feet of water.

The number of individuals who pour out of the docks when the hours of closing them have arrived is not a little remarkable. Revenue officers, clerks, warehouse-keepers, engineers, coopers, and laborers of every grade, seem actually to block up the way. There may be about, on an average, 5000 employed in the St. Katherine's, London, and the West and East India Docks.

The London station, or *terminus*, of the London and Birmingham Railway is behind Euston Square, on the north-western extremity of the metropolis. Euston Square lies on a portion of a line of road which interposes a belt, on the north and north-west, between a long and varied suburb and what is strictly London. It forms a great thoroughfare, connect-





EUSTON SQUARE STATION.

TUNNEL, PRIMROSE HILL.





ing the east and west ends, running by Islington; and is a distinct metropolitan boundary for about three miles of its extent, separated only from the open country by the increasing mass of suburban buildings on the north side. Here, then, close to this great thoroughfare, and yet lying on the very edge of London, is the station of the Railway, already become a place of importance, activity, and bustle.

The entrance to the station is of a grand and imposing character. A lofty gateway, like the entrance of a temple, is flanked by lodges and iron gates. Without putting forth any particular claims to originality, this work has the merit of exhibiting the Grecian Doric upon a scale hitherto unattempted in modern times, and far exceeding that of the generality of ancient examples; the columns being 8 feet 6 inches in diameter, which is only 3 feet 1 inch less than that of the York column. Owing to their being of such massive dimensions, they are not solid throughout, but have a hollow core. The structure is upon the plan of a Greek propylæum, that is, forms a covered entrance, open at both ends. On each side of the outer front are two lodges, connected by piers and lofty iron gates and railing. The height to the top of the pediment is 70 feet.

On passing within this gateway, we feel at once that as the mode of conveyance is different, so is the place. We are not within the narrow precincts of an inn-yard, jostled by porters and ostlers, incommoded by luggage; everything is on a large scale. Yet one's old associations are disturbed by the sight of men in uniform keeping strict "watch and ward," and by the necessary yet rigid exactness of all the arrangements. Friends cannot pass through to see you "seated," or give you a parting look of recognition as the train moves off. "First" and "second" class passengers have their different entrances, and their separate booking desks; and on passing through the building have to produce their tickets as passports into the covered yard where the trains lie.

Passing under Chalk Farm bridge (Chalk Farm was noted, before London had approached so near, as being secluded enough for the purposes of duelling, and some unfortunate affairs have taken place at it,) we enter the deep cutting which leads to Primrose Hill Tunnel. The ground here is all elevated; but the tunnel is not cut through that particular elevation to which the name of Primrose Hill is more especially appropriated. This hill, as the reader is doubtless aware, has been long a favorite resort of the London citizens, as affording a very pleasant prospect, especially of the great metropolis. It lies a little to the left as we pass. Perhaps the best and most agreeable view of this Railroad in the neighborhood of London is to be obtained from the sloping sides of the cutting here. Accordingly numbers are to be found on fine days watching the passing trains, and certainly the view to the spectator is far more picturesque than to the passenger. The former may sit or stand on the slope of the green sward, and admire the train shooting along with an apparent ease, swiftness, and certainty of motion that seems quite charming; but the passenger, unused to such a mode of traveling, is annoyed by the thundering noise of the train, and, if not bewildered by the swiftness with which he is carried, left at least little time to fix his eye steadily on any particular object.

The handsome brick and stone entrance of the Primrose Hill Tunnel, built at an expense of 7000*l.*, (and of which we give a view,) now seems to spread itself on either side, as if to enclose us in its embrace; and

straitway we are plunged into a most fearful darkness. Surely, if there ever is a time when the inexperienced traveler requires to sit still and fear nothing, that time seems to be when he first is whirled with most astounding noise through the darkness of a tunnel. Peeping out before you enter, you can see through Primrose Hill Tunnel, and it seems but a very little way; one can hardly fancy that it should be *so* dark. But after entering, the light becomes dimmer and dimmer; and though for a moment a gleam of light comes down from a shaft, in another moment it is profound darkness again. To attempt to speak so as to be heard by your neighbor is quite out of the question. We go through the tunnel (which is 1120 yards in length, and the excavation of which occupied a period of three years) in about a minute; yet it seems a long time, and one is really glad, by the appearance of the light, to discern that we are coming to the open air again. Tunnel traveling is certainly one of the most disagreeable things on a railroad. If you attempt to put your head out of the carriage, a strong cold breeze beats against your face; your eyes are somewhat in danger from floating particles of soot and dust; sparks from the engine chimney fly past; the noise is tremendous; and should a counter train pass, the chrashing, shattering kind of sound is most appalling, while you cannot ask your neighbor the cause, and can but imperfectly guess it yourself. This is more particularly descriptive of the state of things when the wind is blowing against the train; but at all times there is a current of air.

The shaft of the Primrose Hill Tunnel is raised about 10 or 12 feet above the field through which it is pierced. It looks like a dwarf round tower, and might puzzle a person ignorant of its use as to what might be its object, unless a train be passing, and a column of smoke ascend. The field round about gives no indication that man is not now merely walking, but flying through the earth below. In grasping at time, we have baffled natural obstacles; and so, as a railroad, like water, seeks its level, if we cannot carry it over a hill, we pierce the obstruction, and find the level on the other side.

The parks of London lie on its western side. St. James' extends from behind the Horse Guards and government offices in White Hall and Downing Street to the New Palace; its adjunct, the Green Park, reaches from thence to Piccadilly and Hyde Park Corner. The chief western entrance into the metropolis (the road from Bath, &c.), which runs into Piccadilly, separates the western extremity of the Green Park from the south-east side of Hyde Park, at what is called Hyde Park Corner; and at this particular spot the stranger, who is entering London for the first time, will receive a favorable impression of the splendor of the metropolis. On either side of the road or street, which is spacious, are handsome gateways, that on the right leading into the Green Park, and those on the left into Hyde Park. The central and side gateways leading into Hyde Park are connected by a fine screen; and the bronze gates in these and the Green Park gateway are beautiful specimens of art.

St. James' Park is the oldest of the metropolitan parks. It appears to have been a waste marshy piece of ground till the reign of Henry VIII.: it was partly drained and enclosed by him. He built a gateway in 1532 at the north end of King street and corner of Downing street, over which he had a passage from Whitehall Palace into the park. The park was much improved in the reign of Charles II., and it has been since that time a favorite resort; but it did not assume its present picturesque appearance





LONDON—HYDE PARK



LONDON—ST. JAMES' PARK.



till 1828, when Mr. Nash, the designer of Regent's Park, converted it from being a formal and almost swampy meadow into a beautiful and luxuriant-looking garden.

St. James' Park received its name from being connected with the palace of St. James, which Henry VIII. built on the site of St. James' Hospital. Hyde Park is so called, from the ground having formed a chief portion of the Manor of Hyde, belonging to Westminster Abbey. This park comprises nearly 400 acres. On its western side are Kensington Gardens, attached to the palace. Kensington Palace was purchased by William III., whose queen took much pleasure in improving the gardens. They were, however, laid out in their present form by Queen Caroline, the wife of George II. The gardens are about three miles and a half in circumference, and contain a number of magnificent trees. On fine evenings—especially Sunday evenings—in spring and summer, they are thronged with visitors.

Regent's Park was formed in 1814. The ground was the property of the Crown, and was let to various persons—but the leases having expired, the property was converted into its present handsome and ornamental form, from the designs of Mr. Nash. The name, as the reader is doubtless aware, was given in compliment to George IV., then Prince Regent. The park is circular, and comprises about 450 acres. It contains a sheet of water; several handsome villas have been built in the interior; and around it is a spacious drive, or road, the exterior side of which is occupied by a number of fine terraces, or ranges of building, highly ornamented, some with colonnades and pillars, and others with allegorical groups and figures. The Zoological Gardens occupy a portion of the park.

St. James' Park, the smallest of the London parks, is certainly the prettiest. It is bounded on the east by the parade at the back of the Horse Guards, and at the western extremity is the new palace, converted into a royal residence by her present Majesty. On the southern and northern sides are the Bird Cage Walk and the Mall, the latter a fine avenue, planted with trees. An iron railing separates the Green Park from St. James'. Hemmed in, as St. James' Park is, by buildings on every side, the sheet of water, shrubbery and trees afford a pleasant landscape in the heart of a great city.

"The Park," as St. James' was formerly most usually termed, was a very favorite resort during the latter part of the seventeenth and the greater portion of the eighteenth centuries. Kensington Gardens, on the west side of Hyde Park, began to divide attention with it, as London spread Westward; but from the reign of Charles II. to that of George II. the fashionables who walked in the "Park," came not from Grosvenor or Berkeley squares or Portland Place, but from the Strand and Fleet street, from Holborn, Lincoln's Inn Fields, and Bow street.

To see Hyde Park at the present day, in its full glory, we must select a fine dry Sunday in April. At such a time the "town" is generally full; every house in every fashionable street and square is occupied; and West-end hotel-keepers are protesting, with politest asseveration, that they can accommodate no more. Passing along Oxford street, we may remark the striking contrast which the street presents with the scene we are about to witness. Shops are all shut, and business is suspended, except the business of omnibus men, chemists and pastrycooks.

Arriving at Hyde Park about four o'clock, and entering by Cumberland

Gate, we cross the carriage road, and having gained the green sward, we may either take possession of a seat, if there is room, or standing, walking, or leaning over the rail, watch the spectacle which has now commenced. The throng of carriages and horses seems to increase every minute. The stream flows in a circle—yet it is a long time before we remark again the same carriages and the same faces.

It is now upwards of five o'clock, and the throng in Hyde Park is at its height. Dukes, merchants, barristers, and bankers are all intermingled; "parliament men" on horseback—for Sunday is a "dies non" in the senate—bow to ladies whose figures and complexion make Frenchmen and Prussians talk with rapture of the "beauties of England;" tall footmen, shining in scarlet and lace, exchange knowing looks with smart diminutive "tigers" in frock coats and top-boots, who cling behind bachelor-looking cabriolets. By and by an occasional carriage may be seen to break out of the circle, and disappear by one of the gates—for the hour of dinner draws nigh. At six o'clock there is a visible declension in the numbers; and after that time the bustle dies rapidly away.

Those who have already dined may leave the whole fashionable West-end dining; and issuing from Hyde Park by the screen-gate, cross the road and enter the Green Park. Passing the new palace, we enter St. James' Park. Here, again, are hundreds, walking amongst the shrubbery, seated on chairs by the water-side, or amusing themselves with the water-fowl. The French fancy that the Londoners are much given to shutting themselves up on Sunday; but a bird's-eye view of the parks in April and May, or a wider survey of the suburbs in summer, would quickly remove the idea.

Rag Fair is a fit enough anti-type of Hyde Park, for the two places lie on the east and west of London; the one is associated with ideas of wealth, fashion, grace, and beauty, and the other with whatever is most sordid, mean, and base. Yet the contemplation of the two scenes would not be worth the time spent on it, if all that we derived was amusement from the contrast. In human society there will always be "all sorts and conditions of men," as in the forest there will be trees from the oak to the bramble. Civilization and education will not have performed their duty to society, until the moral and physical incongruities of large cities are swept away, and such places as St. Giles and Rag Fair have no existence but in the memory of some old citizen, or on the pages of some antiquated guide-book.

It is the lower portion of Rosemary Lane, from the Minories upwards, that is known all over the world as Rag Fair. Yet Rag Fair is not immortal; its glory, like that of many other things of the olden time waxes dim. It was otherwise when gentlemen wore huge wigs, gold and silver laced suits, "blue or scarlet silk stockings, with gold or silver clocks; lace neckcloths; square-toed, short-quartered shoes, with high red heels, and small buckles; very long and formally-curved perukes, black riding wigs, bag wigs, and night cap wigs; small three cornered hats, laced with gold or silver galloon, and sometimes trimmed with feathers;" and, to crown all, the never failing sword dangling at the heels. Then many a faded dandy of his day, whose credit with the tailor was broken up, and many a poor coxcomb of pretension, trying to ape his superiors in externals, were fain to sneak to Monmouth Street, which was a refuge for the broken down, but





RAG FAIR.



FISHMONGERS' HALL.



not for the destitute. Even at a more recent period, when "cloth became the general material for the coat, and velvet, silk, satin, and embroidery, were reserved for court dresses, or waistcoats and breeches only," the dearness of cloth made Rag Fair a very great convenience to people of limited means. But now, thanks to machinery, and to that taste which has produced such a simplicity in male attire, nobody but the very poorest need resort to Rag Fair.

And what is Rag Fair? A collection of old clothes' shops, on each side of a dirty, narrow street, with tables and baskets set up on the edge of the pavement, where almost everything second-hand is sold—old coats, old shirts, old handkerchiefs, and old hats; old shoes that have been familiar with the cobbler's hand; old Tuscan and Dunstable straw bonnets that have been bathed in brimstone smoke again and again; old silk hats with the nap stripped off, and their glossy black turned into a "whity brown." But though wearing apparel is the staple article of commerce, there is but little objection, in this great mart, to deal in anything by which a penny may be made. Crockery of all kinds; pots and pans; you can get a second-hand dinner dish, or an old pair of bellows. Not a rag is lost with the Rag Fair merchants—scarcely an old rusty nail allowed to go astray. Walk up the lane, and mark the keen glancing eyes on the look-out for a customer, and how instinctively they detect him! If you wish to have nothing to say to the "merchants," show no halting irresolution, or one, with gentle coaxing violence, may clap you in his den, and it will go hard if you escape without buying something. Yet keen "Whitechapel sharps" though they are, they will not insult you, if you give the slightest indication of a determination not to be insulted; you may even make a bargain in Rag Fair, if you can, and know how. The place is unquestionably a great convenience to that numerous class whose wages are very low, and whose capacity or ambition does not range very high.

Rag Fair was formerly the "Stock Exchange" of the gatherers of second hand goods; there were regular exchange hours, and "business" was done quite in a business way. This is still the case to a considerable extent. That numerous body who traverse lanes, alleys, streets, and suburban districts, and barter crockery for old clothes, carry their collections to Rag Fair. There is also a large place, where hundreds of straw bonnets of every hue, suspended by strings, oscillate like pendulums; this is dignified by the name of the "East London Bazaar."

The "slop dealers" of Whitechapel carried on an extensive trade during the war, when the Thames was crowded with ships, and money was scattered about by the sailors in their reckless way. The "slop dealers" boarded vessels, as they arrived, bargained with the men and petty officers, carried off their old clothes, and supplied them with what was at least new to them. Trade is still carried on in the same way, but not in the same stirring spirit that it was; the sailors also frequently step ashore to make their own bargains.

Nowhere but in London can a man furnish his house or his person at so cheap or so dear a rate; nowhere else do articles of furniture or dress undergo such strange mutations, or if able to speak with a man's voice, could tell such wonderful and eventful histories. The pier-glass, which in Brook street or Grosvenor square has often revealed, in silent but eloquent language, the charms of a beauty to herself, may come at last, its frame

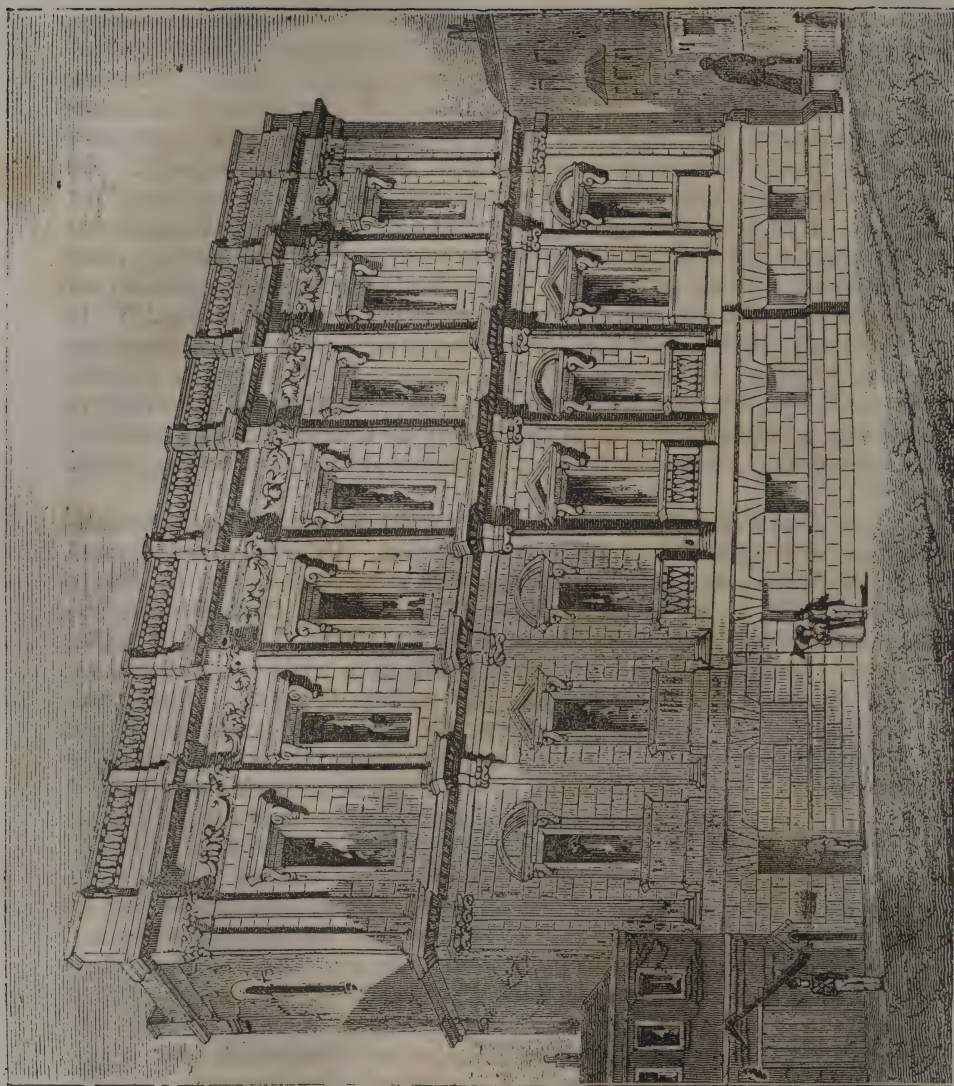
re-gilt, to decorate the parlor of a green-grocer in Goodman's Fields. The suit, which has been paraded in Bond street or Regent street, hangs now in Holywell street or Rag Fair, and passengers are asked, "will ye buy? will ye buy?" The hat which has covered the head of a duke, may now adorn a porter's brows on Sunday. An economical man, not very fastidious, may furnish his house, from kitchen to drawing-room, without paying a visit to an upholsterer.

But we have not yet mentioned "marine stores," those extraordinary dens which abound in the east of London, as spacious show rooms and magnificent looking furniture shops do in the west. Externally, they are the most repulsive looking places in the trading line a man can enter. They are hung round with fragments of old rusty iron, and other matters, which one would think, at first sight, not worth picking off the street; yet some of these places have large premises filled with valuable property. In Colquhoun's time, great complaint was made of these "marine stores," as being repositories of stolen goods. To what extent the charge is applicable at the present day it does not become us to say. Not very long ago, one of the Thames police magistrates, in adjudicating on a case, expressed an emphatic wish that one-half the marine store dealers "were hanged." It is doubtless to these places that the stolen pewter pots of the publicans are carried, and that the lead stripped from the roofs of houses, or pilfered brass and iron, are here converted into cash. But it would be wrong to stigmatize a whole body; there can hardly be a doubt but that some of the marine store dealers carry on a legitimate, although a heterogeneous traffic.

At one time the London fishmongers appear to have been the wealthiest and most powerful of the city companies. Originally they formed two great bodies—the Salt-fishmongers, who were incorporated by letters patent in 1433, in the reign of Henry VI.; and the Stock-fishmongers, incorporated by charter from Henry VII., in 1509. Like other crafts, however, the fishmongers certainly existed as a civic association long before the earliest of these dates. In ancient times the consumption of fish in England was undoubtedly much greater in proportion to the population than it now is. As long as the Romish religion prevailed, an abstinence from flesh was observed by all ranks for a considerable part of the year; and fish were of necessity consumed to a large extent, just as they still are in the Romish countries of the Continent, where at this day the produce of Newfoundland fishery finds its chief market. As in these countries, however, so in papal England—the great consumption was of dried and salted fish. The names of the two old London companies are an evidence of this. It would have been quite impossible in those days for many parts of the country to have obtained a sufficient supply of any other kind; and, indeed, even now a regular supply of fresh fish could not be generally commanded. Although London and some other large towns consume considerable quantities of the article in the uncured state, the great trade must necessarily be in that form of it which admits of being preserved for a length of time.

After the Reformation, the legislature attempted to do what the Church had formerly done, in encouraging the use of fish as an article of food among the people generally. A curious act of Parliament was passed in 1563, which provided "that, as well for the maintenance of shipping, the





WHITEHALL.





LONDON—NATIONAL GALLERY.



increase of fishermen and mariners, and the repairing of port towns, as for the sparing and increase of the flesh victual of the realm, it shall not be lawful for any to eat flesh on Wednesdays and Saturdays—unless under the forfeiture of 3*l.* for each offense—excepting cases of sickness, and also those by special licenses to be obtained.” For these licenses peers were to pay to the poor 1*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; knights and their wives 13*s.* 4*d.*; and other persons 6*s.* 8*d.* Even the license, however, did not permit the purchaser to eat beef on the forbidden days, but only mutton, or other kinds of flesh. It is added, “But because no person shall misjudge the intent of this statute, be it enacted, that whoever shall, by preaching, teaching, writing, or open speech, notify that any eating of fish, or forbearing of flesh, mentioned in this statute, is of any necessity for the serving of the soul of man, or that it is the service of God, otherwise than as other politic laws are and be, then such persons shall be punished as spreaders of false news ought to be.” By a subsequent statute, the prohibition against eating flesh was limited to Saturdays; but it was still commanded that no victualers should sell flesh either on Fridays or Saturdays, or at all during the season of Lent.

These regulations must have tended to keep up among the people their old habit of living to a considerable extent upon dried and salted fish. Meanwhile the two city companies had been incorporated into one by Henry VIII., in 1536, under the title of “the Wardens and Commonalty of the Mystery of Fishmongers.” Thus united, they form the fourth city company, standing immediately after the Drapers, and before the Goldsmiths.

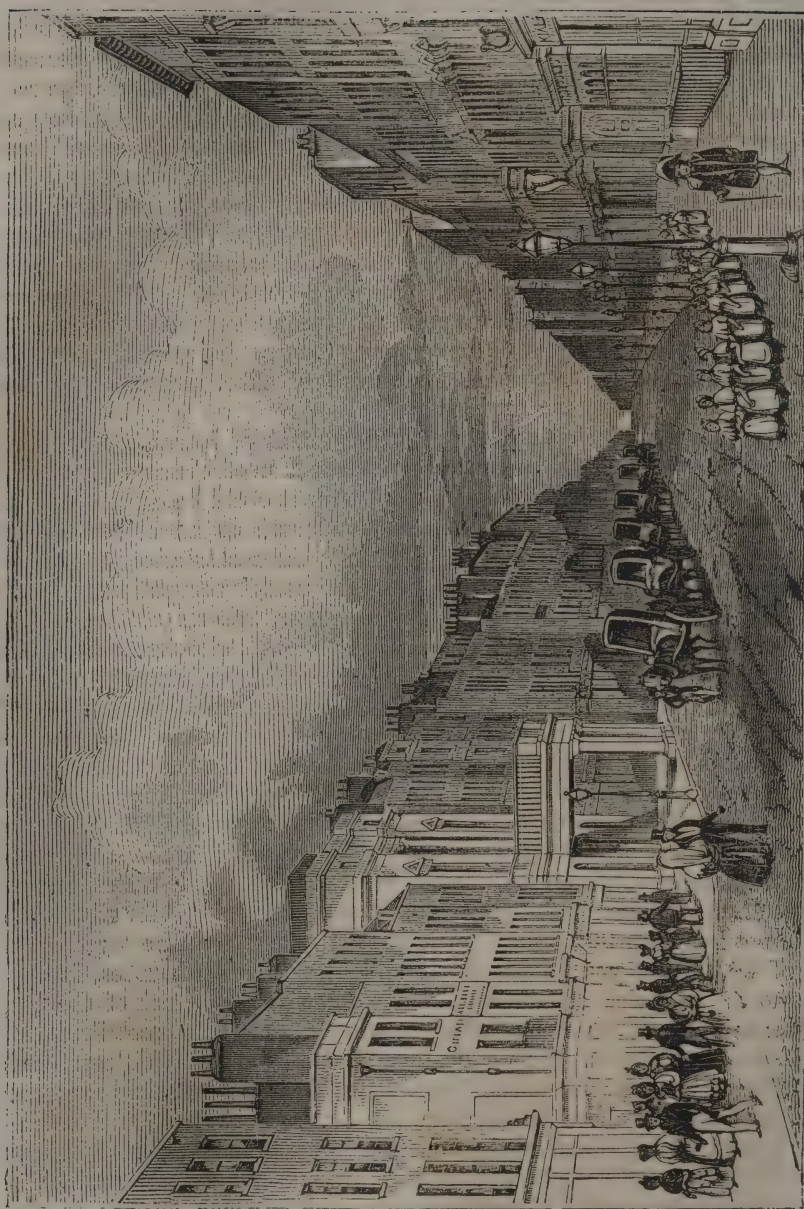
In 1750, Mr. Tomkyns, the clerk of the company, in addressing Frederick, Prince of Wales, on his admission as a freeman, said, “This company, Sir, is famous for having had near threescore lord mayors of the city of London, besides many of the most considerable merchants and eminent citizens, free of it.” At one period, so great was the influence of the company, that it gave to the city six lord mayors in the space of twenty-four years. Of these the most famous was the last, William Walworth, who, in 1380, slew Watt Tyler in Smithfield, at the head of 30,000 rebels. For this achievement Walworth was knighted by the king, Richard II.; and, according to a common, though somewhat doubtful tradition, the dagger was added to the city arms.

Before the Salt-fishmongers and the Stock-fishmongers were united, they had no fewer than six halls, each having one in the three streets then principally inhabited by the members of the trade; namely, Thames street, (anciently called Fishmonger Row,) Old Fish street, and New Fish street. On their incorporation into one society, they chose for their common hall one of their two houses in Thames street, which we are told had been given to them in the reign of Henry VI., by Sir John Cornwall, (Lord Franhope.) This old building, however, was destroyed in the great fire; and soon after a new hall was erected on the same site from a design by Sir Christopher Wren. It was a handsome and showy structure. Maitland, writing about the middle of the last century, says, “The front next the Thames, which has been lately repaired and beautified at a very extraordinary expense, exceeds everything of its kind in this city, and yields a most graceful and pleasant prospect, with a magnificent double flight of stone stairs on the wharf.” It was taken down to make room for

the approaches to the New London Bridge; and a very splendid new hall has since been erected a little to the west of the place where its predecessor stood. Our engraving presents a view of it as seen from the street and the river. It stands between Thames street and the river, immediately to the west of the elevated road leading to the bridge, to the level of which the main part of the building is raised by two lower stories; the undermost disposed into cellars, warehouses and shops, and the higher into offices and other apartments for the use of the company. The superstructure commences about five or six feet above the level of the bridge road, and also consists of two stories. It is faced with Portland stone; and there are three distinct fronts, one to the east, another towards Thames street, and the third looking to the river. The last is ornamented by a colonnade of granite which supports a terrace. The Thames street front presents a receding center and two projecting wings. That to the east is the entrance front, and consists of a range of attached columns in the center, and two wings adorned with pilasters, with a lofty attic surmounting the entablature. These fronts are all separate compositions; and it is objected to the building that, however great may be their particular merits, they are not adapted to produce that unity of effect which would have been desirable.

The application of riches to the encouragement of learning has always been regarded as a liberal and munificent direction of charity. It is unnecessary to go back to very remote periods, but it could be shown that the Anglo-Saxons looked upon the training of youth as an object of great importance; and children were received into the monasteries, not only to be instructed in learning, but to be taught useful occupations. In the reign of Stephen there were, according to Stow, schools attached to the three principal churches in London. It is believed, also, that at this time nearly every collegiate cathedral and church had a school for "poor scholars" in connexion with it. The higher classes at this time thought learning beneath them; and hence, if these "poor scholars" had not been aided by the benevolent, there would have been a lack of educated men for the church, and other liberal offices. The income arising from charitable bequests for the purposes of education in counties which have been fully investigated by the Commissioners of Charities, amounts, for counties which contain one half of the population of England and Wales, to about 480,000*l.* per annum; and it may be presumed that the total for all the counties is not less than 900,000*l.* In Yorkshire and Lancashire together, the sum of 40,000*l.* a year, arising from endowments and charities, is applicable to the purposes of education. We have yet to speak of the large amount raised every year by voluntary subscriptions and contributions in aid of the same object. The educational endowments of Middlesex, exclusive of London and Westminster, amount to above 12,000*l.* a year; those of Westminster to above 5000*l.*; the parochial endowments of London to more than 13,000*l.*, or more than one-third of the total value of endowed charities of every description; and to these sums must be added the charities administered by chartered companies, which amount to about 60,000*l.* per annum, a considerable portion of which are devoted to the purposes of education. Many endowments were made prior to the Reformation, but the greater number of them originated in the sixteenth century, a period of general mental activity and excitement. St. Paul's School, Christ's





OXFORD STREET—SUNDAY.



CHEAPSIDE.



Hospital, Westminster, Merchant Tailors' Free School, were all instituted at this period. Without adopting any forced division, the benevolent exertions for the promotion of education may be ascribed to four great periods of renewed activity since the commencement of the sixteenth century; and around these culminating points it may be desirable to place the information collected relative to educational charity.

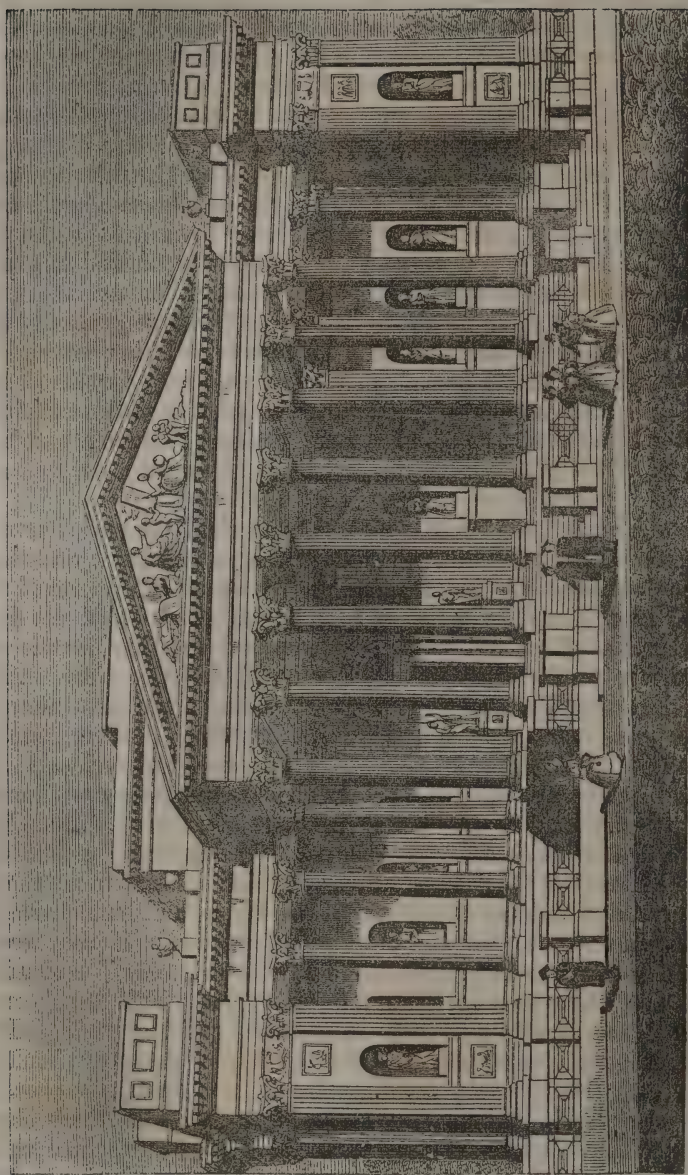
Two causes contributed to render the sixteenth century a period in which much was done to promote education. After the termination of the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, the aristocracy became less turbulent, and had no longer the same arena for the display of its warlike propensities. Learning then became an object of attention. The nobility and gentry began to send their sons to college, and the path was open to their advancement in political and civil life. Latimer, in one of his sermons, says, "the devil causeth great men and esquires to send their sons to the universities, and put out poor scholars that should be divines." A great economical change was also taking place in the various interests of the country, by which the yeomanry, whose sons had formerly been sent to colleges and other places of education, were placed in a state of temporary suffering which precluded them putting their sons to school. Latimer remarked, as a consequence of this state of things, that, "Universities do wonderfully decay already;" and said, "I think there be at this day 10,000 students less than were within these twenty years." Hence he exclaimed, "thus much I say unto you, magistrates, if you will not maintain schools and universities ye shall have brutality." The hopes which had been entertained of rendering the property of the religious houses available to some extent in promoting learning, had apparently been disappointed; although, in 1539, a bill was passed, in the preamble of which an intention was expressed of converting it to other purposes, that by this means there should be "clerkes norished in the unyversities," "children brought upp in lerning," and that "reders of Grece, Elbrewe, and Latten should have good stipend." The second great cause which occasioned a demand for education was the change which was taking place in the ecclesiastical constitution of the country, which opened new sources of inquiry, and spread abroad a desire for information. The schools at which "poor scholars" had been maintained in order to provide a succession of officers for the church, were inadequate to the growing desire which persons acquiring wealth in trade experienced for the fit education of their children. In the reign of Edward VI. the Clergy of Great Allhallows, St. Andrew, Holborn, St. Peter, Cornhill, and St. Mary Colechurch, addressed the parliament and the king requesting that grammar-schools should be established in their respective parishes. Their petition was granted, and a few years afterwards several schools of a similar description were established in other parishes in London. These schools were endowed by the bequests of liberal and wealthy persons. Individuals who had become rich by the pursuit of trade, and retired to that part of the country from which they originally came, founded and endowed schools there which were necessarily rendered applicable to the class for whose advantage they were intended. Gratuitous education thus became "popularized," and extended itself over the country. There was not sufficient demand for education in remote parts of the country to render it independent of eleemosynary aid. In these schools the boys were to be taught "in learning and good manners;"

or, "in grammar and other good learning;" or, "freely and carefully taught and instructed;" or, "piously educated;" or, instructed "in religion and other good literature." It too often happened that instruction in the classics was insisted upon, especially in the schools first established. This provision, which was of some value at the time, has long ceased to be advantageous; the children have been driven from the school; and the master, being without pupils, has enjoyed the benefits of the foundation as a sinecure; or, in some cases, it has happened that, as instruction in the classics was of no use to the class for whose advantage the school was established, they have been forced out of the establishment, and a superior class has been introduced. By the statutes of St. Paul's school, drawn up by Dean Colet, the founder, in 1508, the boys were to be taught good literature, both Latin and Greek, "and good autors, that wrote theire wisdom with clean and chaste Laten, other in verse or in prose." The disadvantages of this rule are smaller in a large city than they would be in a small town, where schools, founded on a similar plan, have been left without scholars. Cranmer, who had hoped to see grammar-schools founded in every shire in England, lived but to see the commencement of the work. A century or more had elapsed after his death before they became generally established.

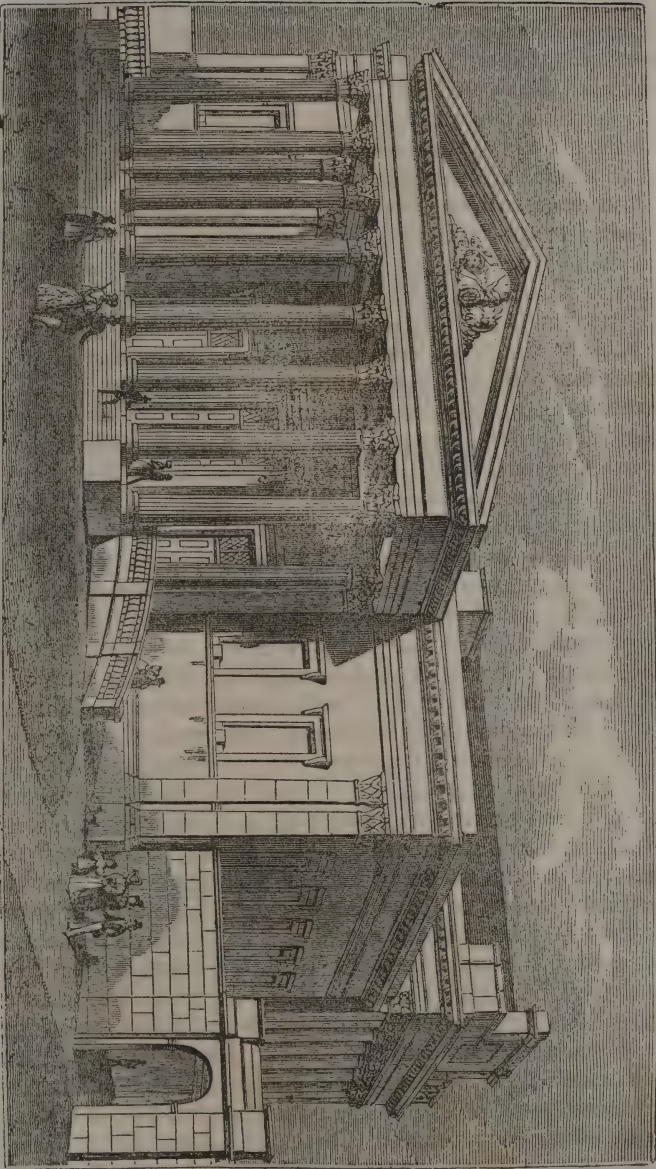
But though much had been done towards establishing and endowing free-schools and grammar-schools, yet they were chiefly for the benefit of the richer and middle classes; and another impulse was requisite to cause the establishment of schools of a more popular character, and adapted for the poor. This brings us to the second epoch in the history of educational exertions.

The straitness of manners which characterized the period preceding and during the Commonwealth, was followed by a reaction; and the Restoration was the signal for the unrestrained license, which depraved the general tone of morals, and evils naturally followed which could not fail to arrest the attention of society. Men confederated together for the purpose of "Promoting the Reformation of Manners;" societies were established for this object, and the grand juries of counties made presentments on the general prevalence of vice and immorality, which rendered such exertions necessary. The general looseness of the times had seriously affected the interests and happiness of the poorer classes, and their condition became an object of greater concern than it had heretofore been. Mr. Nedham, in his "Discourse concerning Schools and Schoolmasters," published in 1663, remarked that "it must needs pity any Christian heart to see the little dirty infantry which swarms up and down the alleys and lanes, with curses and ribaldry in their mouths, and other rude behavior, as if they were intended to put off their humanity and degenerate into brutes;" and added, "The public have their part in this guilt and neglect; little has been done, and that little, too, has been so little looked after and observed." He proposed as a remedy for these evils that the children of the poor should be taught by the parish clerks, under the direction of the minister, who should catechize them every week. He said, "I should propose that there should be no allowance for any one whatsoever to keep a private school upon his own account, except the clerk of the parish, whose office it should be (with an allowance for it) to teach all the children of the parish." The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge originated in 1698, out of the interest which the moral state of the poor excited. It began immediately to apply





FITZWILLIAM MUSEUM.



VICTORIA ROOMS—BRISTOL.



itself to encourage "the setting up of charity schools for the instruction of poor children in the knowledge and practice of the Christian religion, as professed and taught in the Church of England." It adopted this course as "a sure means of a general and lasting reformation," proceeding on the principle that "the growth of vice and immorality was greatly owing to gross ignorance of the principles of the Christian religion." In 1709 the St. Anne's Society was established in London, with the design of affording the means of instruction, and clothing the children of every class of poor and necessitous persons.

The first English charity school, according to the general acceptation of the term, was, as it has generally been understood, opened in Westminster in 1698; but the old charity school-house in Hatton-Garden, over each of the doorways of which are effigies of two of the children, bears the date of 1696. The same causes which have since given rise to so many other schools, in part contributed to the setting up of the charity school in Westminster; for, in the previous year had been established, also in Westminster, the "Jesuits' Charity Grammar Schools." Two other charity schools in St. Botolph's, Aldgate, and Norton Folgate, were established about the same date. The Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, under whose superintendence these schools were placed, issued an annual report for several years after its establishment, in the form of "A Letter from a Member of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge in London to a Correspondent in the Country." In the account given in the "Letter" for 1701, the writer states that "about 2000 children are actually put to school, in and about the cities of London and Westminster, and the greater part of them clothed upon charity." The children were frequently catechized publicly, as a means of exciting public interest and sympathy. In the above letter, it is stated that "a certain person unknown, being lately present at the catechizing the poor children in the parish of Whitechapel, was very much affected therewith, and immediately gave the sum of 1000*l.* to be laid out in land, for the perpetual maintenance of a school for the poor of that parish." To encourage each other in their work, the patrons of the schools assembled the children together, for the first time, in 1704, in St. Andrew's, Holborn, where a sermon was preached on the occasion. The number of children present was 2000. These anniversaries were subsequently held at St. Bride's in Fleet Street. In the "Spectator" for Feb. 6, 1711, there is a paper containing reasons for supporting these schools, in which the writer says, "I fell into this discourse from a letter sent to me to give notice that fifty boys would be clothed and take their seats, at the charge of some generous benefactor, at St. Bride's Church on Sunday next." He remarks, that "the charity schools which have been erected of late years are the greatest instances of public spirit the world has produced." Again, in the "Spectator" for July 14, 1712, the writer says, "I was last Sunday highly transported at our parish church. The gentleman in the pulpit pleaded movingly in behalf of the poor children, and they for themselves much more forcibly by singing a hymn." The schools made rapid progress in public favor, though their design excited many popular prejudices.

In the Annual Report of the Christian Knowledge Society for 1714, it is stated that "in the cities of London and Westminster there are 117 charity schools, in which are taught above 3000 boys and more than 1700

girls, and most of the children are clothed. From these schools there have been about 1650 boys and upwards of 824 girls put out apprentices. Towards the maintenance of these schools there is now above 5000*l.* a year subscribed; besides which there has been collected, upon this occasion, the last year, above 3400*l.*" In England, exclusive of London, there were 900 schools, at which several thousand children of both sexes were instructed, many clothed, and some wholly maintained. In 1716, the children of the different schools held their anniversary for the first time at St. Sepulchre's, instead of St. Bride's, and assembled to the number of 5000. "After all," it is stated, "there are more children in divers parishes than the richer inhabitants are able to educate, and much less able to set to work." Many of the London clergy made the most praiseworthy exertions in behalf of education. Monthly lectures were delivered in several parishes upon week-days for the purpose of promoting the success of the schools, after which collections were made. The exertion of the laity were not less zealous. The extent to which this zeal proceeded may be inferred from Mandeville's "Essay on Charity and Charity Schools," published in 1723, in which he speaks in a cynical spirit of "the enthusiastic passion for charity schools," and asserts that "whoever dares openly oppose them is in danger of being stoned by the rabble." This work of the author of "The Fable of the Bees" was noticed in the anniversary sermons for several successive years after its publication. But the cause of the popularity of the schools was in the real and visible improvement which they produced upon those who frequented them. In the anniversary sermon for 1738, preached by Dr. Conybeare, dean of Christ Church, Oxford, he stated that "in a course of more than forty years, from the first institution of these schools to the present time, there have been scarce any (if any at all) who, having gone through the discipline of these places, have been afterwards convicted of any capital crime.

There were two schools, in 1738, in the parish of St. Margaret, Westminster, at one of which the children were clothed in blue, and at the other in grey. These schools still exist. At a school at Greenwich, established in 1700, the children spun and made their own clothes, both linen and woollen. The nature of the education received at these charity schools was of the most simple kind—reading, writing, and accounts. In the parish of St. Andrew's, Holborn, there was a school for teaching navigation to thirty children (increased to forty in 1740), who were elected out of eight other charity schools. In St. James', Clerkenwell, was a school for children of the age of five years, where they were received until qualified for other schools. At a school in Lambeth, the boys were employed one-half of the day in spinning yarn, and the girls in knitting and sewing alternately. At the school of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields, one-third of the boys were employed daily in labor, so that all worked two days each week in rotation. Notwithstanding the simple education given to the children of the charity schools, those who were active in promoting the work were met by absurd objections. Many of the promoters of education condescended to lower their notions to the level of their prejudiced assailants; and some actually engaged in establishing schools held opinions very slightly differing from those who opposed education altogether. Apprehensions were entertained in some quarters, that the masters of the schools, through a false affectation of letting the benefactors see the great improvements the





ST. EDWARD'S CHAPEL.



ST. GEORGE'S CHAPEL—WINDSOR





children receive from their bounty, "caused them to attain such a proficiency in working arithmetical, singing, and displaying their memories in their public examinations, as lifted their thoughts above the stations of life in which Providence has placed them."

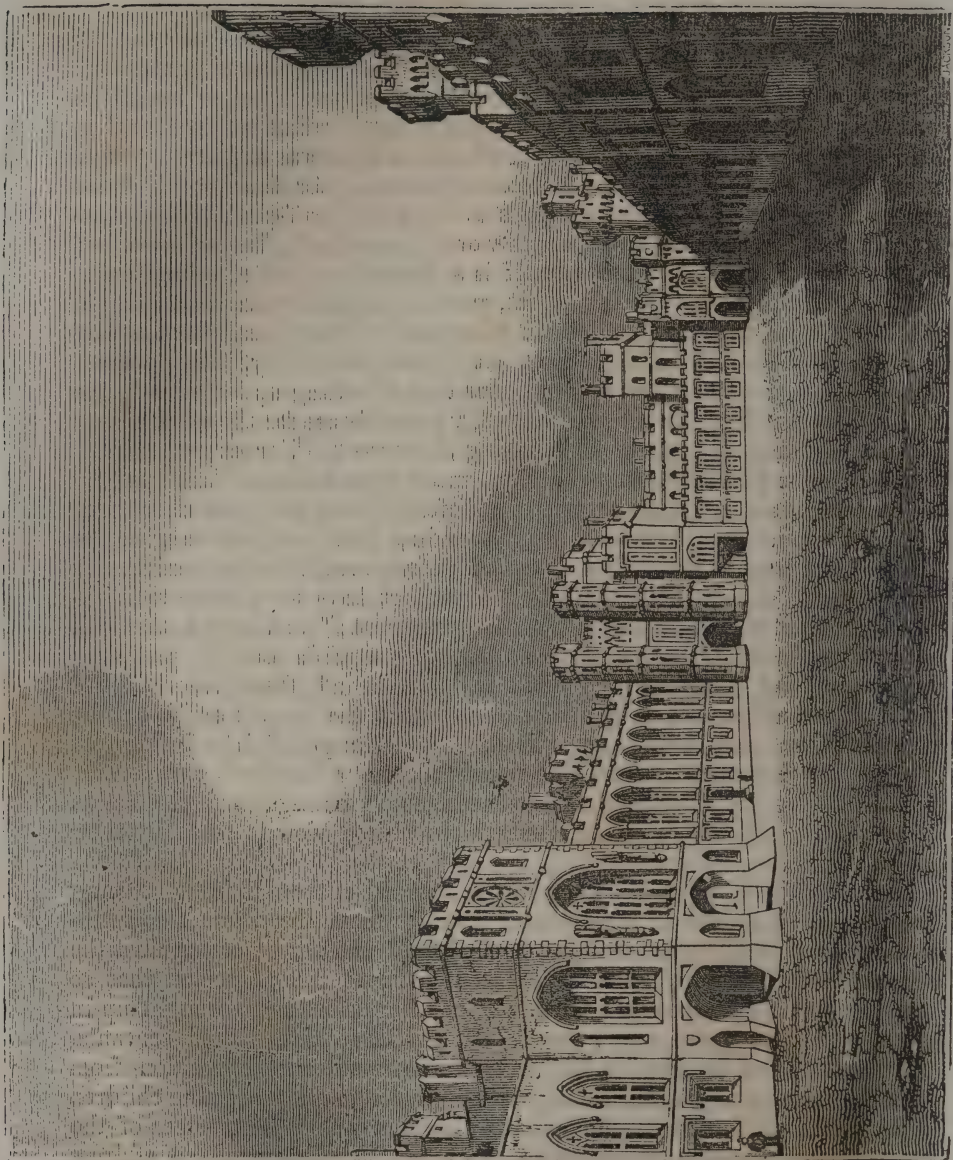
The bishop of St. Asaph, in a sermon preached in 1741, fell into this timid advocacy of the work of education; but in printing this sermon, he added the following note, which is curious and deserving of attention, as showing that while the popular prejudices against the education of the poorer classes have nearly died away, the very suggestions made a century ago for its improvement are still ineffectually urged, or have only been very partially adopted. The note is as follows:—"Several gentlemen of great knowledge in business, true friends of these schools, and prudently desirous to establish a suitable plan of education in them, have yet been of opinion, that if the children were taught, as they might be at small expense, something of the art of *drawing*, it would prove beneficial in several respects. For this they urge the great perfection to which silk manufactures are now advanced in England, so as to equal, if not exceed, a rival nation in that commodity, except in the figure, and what is called the 'fancy of a pattern,' which this instruction might supply: that in France the very poorest of the children are all taught to draw; that the benefits of that branch of skill are very great; for it not only multiplies persons capable of drawing patterns, and thereby lessens the expense to the manufacturer, but likewise greatly assists in the performance of the work itself, as a workman who can himself draw a pattern will finish with greater truth and dispatch any given pattern, whether drawn by his own or by another hand. That not only in this and similar branches of manufacture, but in several other cases, drawing might be of great use, and in none could it do any mischief. The carpenter, the smith, the mason, and many other inferior laborious employments would be usefully improved by this piece of knowledge. It might also be of great use in the moral way, as a method of governing the children; this branch of learning being dispensed as a reward to the most regular, diligent, and best behaved boys, and would certainly furnish to many of them an innocent and improving exercise, very proper to engage some of those vacant hours when they do not attend school." If these recommendations had been acted upon a century ago, the popular taste would have been much more refined than it is at present; and it is not easy to estimate the effect which would have been produced had it fortunately happened that instruction of the kind here recommended had been added to the other advantages possessed by English artisans. Nearly everything on this point has yet to be commenced; and the demand for some steps to be taken chiefly proceeds now from the same motives as those which existed in 1740.

Another objection strongly urged against the charity schools during the early part of the century was, that they were rather "nurseries of sloth and idleness, than the schools of diligence and labor." In the anniversary sermon for 1741, this point was grappled with, and the Bishop of St. Asaph, who preached, said, "The children are destined to, and engaged in, the lowest class of labor; the plough and the spade are put into the hands of some; others are sent to sea; several are engaged in laborious mechanical employments; and many are placed in families as the meanest servants." The girls "are duly exercised in the lowest offices of household service

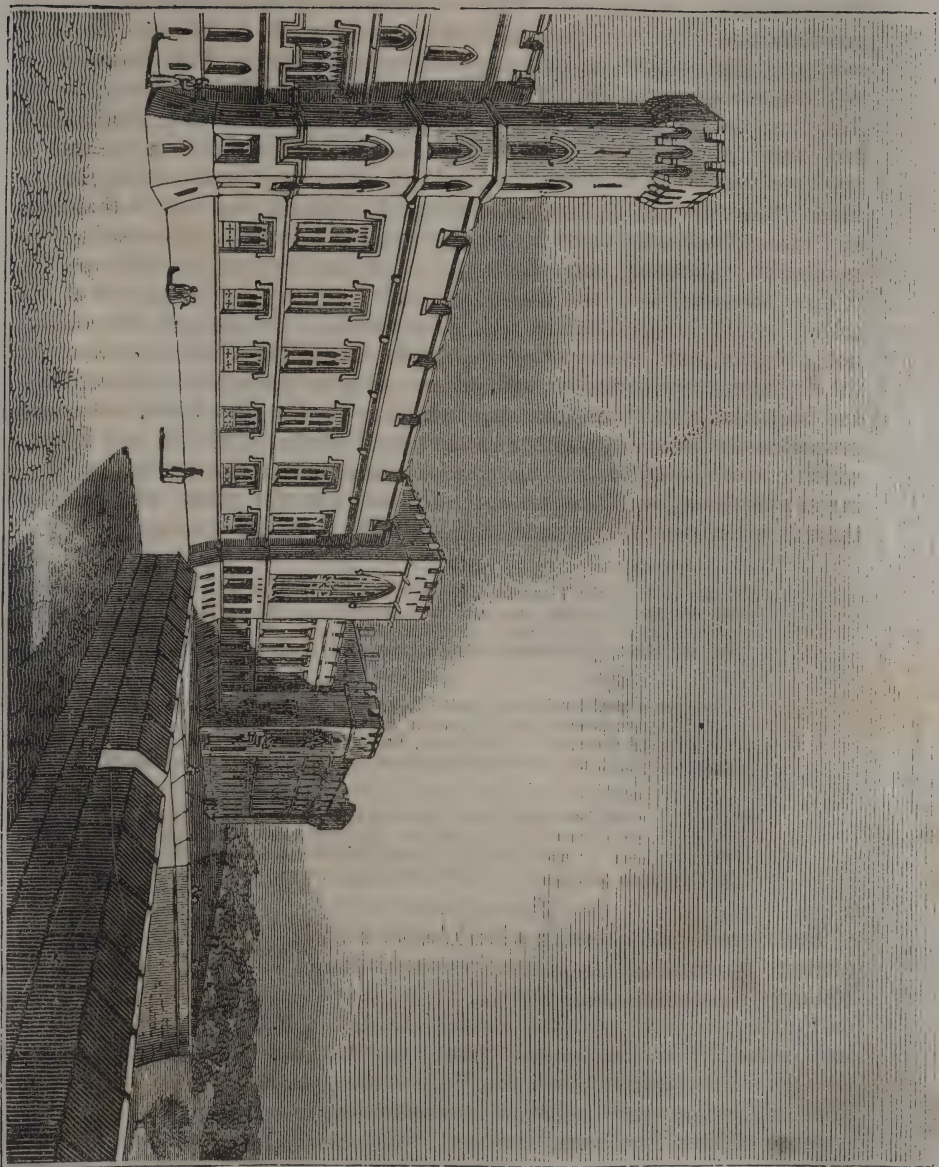
By practice and habit they become qualified for a low station." In this manner was it sought to tranquilize the jealousy of those who said, that "the children are trained up so long at school in an habitual disuse of labor, that their unaccustomed hands will not easily submit afterwards to those servile employments in which they are most wanted." This complaint was considered so reasonable at the time, that the trustees of the schools took every means to remedy it. A plan was put forth for employing the children in spinning, which was printed for several years as an appendix to the Annual Reports of the schools. "The spinning of coarse wool, flax, or hemp," it was said, "is a thing easily learnt, and the waste which will be always made by beginners, will not be much;" and a hope was expressed "that many good people would send in coarse materials for the benefit of the schools." At a profit on each child's labor of one half-penny per day, it was assumed that a considerable sum would be realized; but as remarked in the sermon for 1741, "labor itself is so material a part of education to children of this rank especially, that, were it attended with some charge, it would be an improvement worth purchase." Many years before this period—in 1704—De Foe, in his tract "Alms no Charity," had pointed out the economical effect, in an analogous case of setting up factories in the workhouses. "Suppose now," he says, "a workhouse for the employment of poor children sets them to spinning of worsted. For every skein of worsted these poor children spin, there must be a skein the less spun by some poor person or family that spun it before;" and yet, year after year, the most eminent divines were recommending this interference with the labor of the community. The Dean of Peterborough, in the anniversary sermon for 1740, stated that "all attempts that have been made to introduce manufactures have met with encouragement;" and added that "it cannot be doubted, but as soon as proper materials can be provided, instruction and labor will go hand in hand in all these schools." A year or two afterwards it was discovered that the project could not be successful, and that it was inexpedient. The "danger of interfering with the present industrious poor, who would become a burden," was clearly pointed out. In 1742, Dr. Secker completely extinguished the notion of employing the children in manufactures with a view to profit by their labor.

The party from whom the complaint proceeded of the children not being brought up in habits of labor, and to satisfy whom the attempt to introduce manufacturing processes was made, raised another outcry against the schools, which exhibits not a little inconsistency. They asserted that so many children were put to trades, who had heretofore been brought up in other capacities, there was a great difficulty in obtaining good servants, and a scarcity of laborers in husbandry. To counteract opposition from this source, the clergy in the country were directed to encourage the children being put to agricultural employments; and in 1738, the trustees of the charity schools in the parish of St. Andrew, Holborn, issued an address "to all farmers, gardeners, and other occupiers of land in England," in which they allude to the alleged "great want of hands in divers parts of the kingdom, for tilling the ground and performing other parts of husbandry;" and state that, "being heartily disposed to do all in their power to render their charity children useful to the public, they will bind boys apprentices for seven years to learn the art of husbandry, and girls





WINDSOR CASTLE—FIRST VIEW.



WINDSOR CASTLE—SECOND VIEW



for five years to do household work." This clamor, like many others against education, was at length put down by the good sense and perseverance of the supporters of the schools.

In 1782 the children educated in the schools of the metropolis assembled for the first time in St. Paul's, on their anniversary meeting; a practice which has been followed ever since. The sermon was preached by Dr. Porteus, Bishop of London. The circumstances of this anniversary meeting are thus noticed by the Rev. R. Hodgson, who wrote a life, and edited the works, of Bishop Porteus, in a note to the sermon delivered on this occasion: "The trustees of the charity schools obtained permission this year, for the first time, to range the children, (amounting to near 5000), in a kind of temporary amphitheatre, under the dome of St. Paul's, where the service was performed and the sermon preached,—the congregation occupying the area. The effect of so large a number of children, disposed in that form, and uniting with one voice in the responses and in the psalm-singing, was wonderfully pleasing and affecting." In his sermon the Bishop said: "You here see near 5000 children, collected together from the charity schools in and about London and Westminster. A spectacle this which is not to be paralleled in any other country in the world; which it is impossible for any man to contemplate without emotions of tenderness and delight;" and he added, that "the number of children in this place bears but a small proportion to the whole number in the schools of Great Britain and Ireland, which exceeds 40,000." This spectacle was commemorated in the following simple lines by Blake, an eccentric but powerful artist, who published them in a curious little volume, entitled "Songs of Innocence:"

"T was on a Holy Thursday, their innocent faces clean,  
The children walking two and two, in red and blue and green,  
Grey headed beadles walk'd before, with wands as white as snow,  
Till into the high dome of Paul's they like Thames' waters flow.

"Oh, what a multitude they seem'd, these flowers of London town,  
Seated in companies they sit, with radiance all their own:  
The hum of multitudes was there, but multitudes of lambs,  
Thousands of little boys and girls raising their innocent hands.

"Now like a mighty wind they raise to heaven the voice of song,  
Or like harmonious thunderings the seats of heaven among;  
Beneath them sit the aged men, wise guardians of the poor;  
Then cherish pity lest you drive an angel from your door."

But a period was coming when charity schools were found to be inadequate to the wants of an increasing population. This inadequacy led Mr. Raikes of Gloucester, in 1781 or 1782, to give religious instruction to children on Sundays before going to church. In 1785, a Society was established in London, "for the support and encouragement of Sunday Schools throughout the British dominions." Dr. Porteus, in a charge to his Clergy in the following year alluded to the insufficiency of charity schools. "The expense of founding them," he says, "necessarily prevents their becoming universal. In many towns, and by far the greater number of villages, there are no charity schools at all. In London, where they are generally established, they can take in only a very small part of the children of the poor; the rest are left without education. Charity schools, therefore, are partial and local remedies; they operate only within a narrow circle;

Sunday schools are therefore a proper appendage to them." In 1803, the Sunday School Union was established, with a view to stimulate and encourage those who are Sunday school teachers to greater exertions, to enlarge existing and establish new schools, and to supply books, &c. Other steps were soon made to render education more universal; and the work of instruction no longer proceeded to so great an extent under the auspices of the Church of England. In 1789, the Rev. Dr. Andrew Bell applied his plan of instruction at Madras; and in 1797, an account of it was published in England. In 1798, a school on the Madras system was established at St. Botolph's, Aldgate. This system was zealously advocated and adopted by Mr. Joseph Lancaster, a Quaker. In 1808, the "British and Foreign School Society," designed to promote the education of the working classes of every denomination, was established. Its object was "to uphold the principle of liberty of conscience and the utter abolition of religious tests in connection with common day school education." In 1811, three years afterwards, the National Society was established, "for promoting the education of the poor in the principles of the Established Church." Its object was to promote the establishment of schools of three kinds: namely, schools for infants under six or seven years of age; Sunday and daily schools, for children from six or seven to about thirteen; and Sunday schools, chiefly for those who are engaged in labor during the week. The schools of the British and Foreign, and National Societies are now the chief means of dispensing popular instruction in that country.

On a hill which is somewhat precipitous to the north, but is of gentle ascent in other directions, stands the Castle of Windsor, situated in Berkshire, about twenty-two miles from London. "It enjoyeth," says the old English topographer Camden, "a most delightful prospect round about; for right in the front it overlooketh a vale, lying out far and wide, garnished with corn-fields, flourishing with meadows, decked with groves on either side, and watered with the most mild and calm river Thames: behind it arise hills every where, neither rough nor over high, attired as it were with woods, and even dedicated as it were by nature to hunting and game." The magnificent castle which crowns this eminence is associated with some of the most interesting events and persons in English history. It has witnessed all the pomp of chivalry, and its courts have rang with the feasts and tournaments of the Edwards and Henries. Kings were born here—and here they are buried; and after every change of fashion and opinions, it is still the proudest residence of the sovereign of England, as it was seven centuries ago. The Parliament, within these few years, has thought fit to bestow very large sums upon the complete repair of this castle; and we cannot think the amount ill bestowed, for the ancient recollections of a people are amongst its best possessions.

There is scarcely a point within a few miles' distance where the Castle of Windsor is not seen to great advantage. To the traveler upon the Bath road it presents its bold northern front, which comprises the longest continuous range of its buildings. On the road to Windsor, by Datchet, the eastern front, with its four grand towers, appears of itself to exceed most other edifices in magnitude. To the great Park the southern front is displayed; and when this part is viewed from the extremity of the fine avenue called the Long Walk, nothing can appear more stately. In every situation, the Round Tower rises above the other buildings, and arrests the eye



by its surpassing dimensions. Burke has well characterized it as "the proud keep of Windsor."

The visitor to Windsor, upon turning up the street (Castle street) which leads to the Castle, will have the south front presented to him. The improvements that have been made in this part within the last few years are most striking. The road now leads boldly up to the Castle; and the observer looks without interruption upon the rich woods of the adjacent parks. A very short time ago a number of contemptible buildings were scattered about the Castle; and even the superb avenue, the Long Walk, was deprived of its natural object—the object doubtless for which it was planted—that of forming a road to the principal entrance to the Castle, by the avenue, and the entrance being crossed by a large plastered house and offices called the Queen's Lodge. All these excrescences have been judiciously removed.

The southern entrances to the Castle are reserved for private use. The visitor will approach it through what is called the Lower Ward. He enters into this ward by a noble gateway, with two towers, built by Henry VIII. The first object which arrests his attention, is the Chapel of St. George—a building unrivaled in England or in Europe, as a perfect specimen of that richly ornamented Gothic architecture, which prevailed in the latter end of the fifteenth century and the beginning of the sixteenth. This is represented in the engraving. Immediately to the east of this fine chapel is an ecclesiastical building of later erection, called Wolsey's Tomb-house; which is now used as the dormitory of the Royal Family. The buildings opposite St. George's Chapel are the residences of the decayed military officers, called the poor Knights of Windsor. The bold tower which terminates this row of buildings, as well as the opposite tower called the Winchester, (from its being the residence of William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, the architect of the castle,) are the best preserved, without much change of the more ancient parts of the whole fabric. On the right, as he proceeds, the visitor looks down over a low battlemented wall, upon what was once the moat of the Round Tower. It appears to have been in part a garden, as long since as the time of James I. of Scotland, who was detained here for some time, and has celebrated this solace of his imprisonment in one of his poems. The tower itself rises in stern grandeur out of this depth. The mound upon which it is built is no doubt artificial. This immense tower has been considerably elevated within a few years, in common with many other parts of the Castle.

Proceeding through a gateway of two towers, whose low portal indicates its antiquity and its employment for defense, the visitor finds himself within the magnificent quadrangle of the palace. On the north are the state apartments, in which is included the celebrated Hall of St. George—on the east and south the private apartments of the queen and her court. The state apartments are exhibited to strangers, as we shall more particularly mention. Nothing can be more imposing than the general effect of this quadrangle. Every part is now of a uniform character. We look in vain for the narrow grated windows and pierced battlements of the times of feudal strife, when convenience was sacrificed to security. These characteristics of a martial age were swept away by Charles II., who substituted the architectural style of the age of Louis XIV. than which nothing could have been in worse taste. In the recent alterations of the Castle, the architect has

most judiciously preserved the best characteristics of old English domestic architecture. The engraving may give some notion of the richness and grandeur of this quadrangle.

Returning a short distance, the entrance to the terrace presents itself to the visitor. After descending a flight of steps, the scene is totally changed. A prospect, unrivaled in extent and beauty, bursts upon the sight. Few persons can look upon the scene without emotion. The eye delightedly wanders over the various features of this remarkable landscape. It traces the Thames gliding tranquilly and brilliantly along, through green and shadowy banks—sometimes presenting a broad surface, and sometimes escaping from observation in its sudden and capricious windings—it ranges as far as the distant hills—it counts the numerous turrets and spires of the neighboring villages—or it reposes upon the antique grandeur of Eton College. Gray has beautifully described this magnificent prospect in well-known lines:—

“From the stately brow  
Of Windsor’s heights th’ expanse below  
Of grove, of lawn, of mead survey,  
Whose turf, whose shade, whose flowers among  
Wanders the hoary Thames along  
His silver winding way.”

The north side of the terrace is constantly open to the public; and this is by far the finest part. To the eastern side, admittance is only granted on Saturdays and Sundays. At the north-east angle of the terrace, the northern front of the Castle is exhibited as shown in the engraving.

The earliest history of Windsor Castle, like that of many other ancient buildings, is involved in some obscurity. It is doubtful whether in the time of William the Conqueror, and of his son Rufus, it was used as a residence; but it was certainly then a military post. At Old Windsor, a village about a mile and a half from the present castle, there was a Saxon palace, which was occasionally inhabited by the kings of England. Henry I. held his court there in 1105 and 1107; but having enlarged the adjacent castle with “many fair buildings,” he, according to the Saxon Chronicle, kept the festival of Whitsuntide there in 1110. In the time of Stephen, the Castle, according to Holingshed’s Chronicle, was esteemed the second fortress in the kingdom. Henry II. and his son held two parliaments there. Upon the news of his brother Richard’s imprisonment in the Holy Land, John took possession of the Castle; and after his accession to the throne remained there, as a place of security, during his contests with the barons. Holingshed says, that the barons, having refused to obey the summons of the king to attend him in his own castle, he gave them the meeting at Runnemede, which ended in the signature of Magna Charta. The fortress sustained several changes of masters during the wars between the crown and the nobility, which broke out again in the reign of John and of Henry III. Windsor Castle was the favorite place of residence of Edward I. and II., and here Edward III. was born. During the long reign of this monarch, the Castle, according to its present magnificent plan, was commenced, and in great part completed. The history of the building furnishes, in many respects, a curious picture of the manners of the feudal ages.

At a period when no man’s possessions were thoroughly assured to him by equal laws,—when the internal peace of kingdoms was distracted by



the pretensions of rival claimants to sovereignty,—and when foreign wars were undertaken, not for the assertion of national honor or the preservation of national safety, but at the arbitrary will of each warlike holder of a throne, personal valor was considered the highest merit: and the great were esteemed, not for their intellectual acquirements and their moral virtues, but for their gallantry in the tournament and their ferocity in the battle-field. Amongst the legends of the old chroniclers and romance-writers (and there was originally small difference in the two characters,) the most favorite was the story of King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. Froissart, the most amusing of chroniclers, says, that Windsor was the seat of the solemnities of the Round Table, in the sixth century: and later historians affirm that Edward III. in a solemn joust (tournament,) held at Windsor in the eighteenth year of his reign, revived the institution. Walsingham, the historian, states, that upon this occasion Edward built a round chamber, two hundred feet in diameter, for the deliberations and festivals of the companions in arms that he gathered about him. This strange house was itself called the Round Table. It is probable that it was a temporary structure; for, within a short time after, various commissions for appointing surveyors and impressing workmen were issued; and in 1356, William of Wykeham, then one of the king's chaplains, was appointed architect of the various buildings which Edward's taste for magnificent display had projected. In one year three hundred and sixty were impressed to be employed at the king's wages. Some of them having secretly left Windsor to engage in other employments for greater wages, writs were issued for their committal to prison, and to prohibit all persons from engaging them under severe penalties. Such were the modes in which the freedom of industry was violated, before the principles of commercial intercourse were fairly established. Had workmen been at liberty to engage with whom they pleased there would have been no want of workmen for the completion of Windsor Castle, or any other public or private undertaking. The capital to be applied to the payment of wages, and the workmen seeking the capital, would have been equally balanced. Impressments of various artificers appear to have gone on for the same object, till the year 1373; after which there are no records of more commissions being issued. It is probable, therefore, that this immense work was completed, as far as Edward III. had contemplated, in about seventeen years from its commencement. Before it had been begun, Edward had founded the Order of the Garter; and during its progress, and after its completion, the festivals of this institution were celebrated at Windsor with every pomp of regal state. Knights-strangers were several times invited from all parts of the world, with letters of safe-conduct to pass and repass the realm; and one of these festivals is particularly described by the chroniclers as exceeding all others in splendor, which was given in honor of John, King of France, who was then a prisoner at Windsor. John, who appears to have been a shrewd observer, is recorded to have said, that he never knew such royal shows and feasting, without some after-reckoning for gold and silver.

Edward III. erected at Windsor a chapel dedicated to St. George, for the especial service of the Order of the Garter; but the present beautiful chapel is of later date. It was begun by Edward IV., who found it necessary to take down the original fabric, on account of its decayed state. The

work was not completed till the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. So beautiful a monument of architectural skill could not have been hurried forward as the ruder buildings of the Castle were.

With the exception of occasional high pageantries on the festival of St. George, Windsor Castle does not appear to have been the scene of many public solemnities after the reign of its chivalrous founder. Richard II., however, heard here the appeal of high treason brought by the Duke of Lancaster against the Duke of Norfolk. But it was often the favorite country residence of the English kings; several of whom, particularly Henry VII., continued to make various additions and improvements. There is a curious poem by the Earl of Surrey, who was confined in the Castle for violating the canons of the church, by eating flesh in Lent, which presents the best picture we have of the kind of life which the accomplished gallants of the English court led in the country palaces, at a period when refinement had not taken away the relish for simple pleasures. He describes

"The large green courts where we were wont to hove  
With eyes cast up into the maiden's tower;"

and he goes on to contrast his painful imprisonment with his former happiness amongst "the stately seats," "the ladies bright," "the dances short," "the palm-play," "the gravel-ground," "the secret groves," and "the wild forest,"

"With cry of hounds, and merry blasts between  
Where we did chase the fearful hart of force."

There must have been somewhat of tediousness in such a life, for courtiers possessing fewer intellectual resources than Lord Surrey, before letters were generally cultivated, and the manifold enjoyments of taste awakened; and it is probable that the uninstructed high-born engaged in state intrigues, or stirred up useless wars, as much for the desire of excitement, as from less common motives.

The age of Elizabeth brought with it a love of letters; and here "the maiden-queen" occasionally retired from the cares of state, to dictate verses to her private secretary, or receive the flatteries of the accomplished Leicester. There is in the State Paper Office an original manuscript translation of Horace's Art of Poetry, composed by Elizabeth under such circumstances. This queen built the north terrace, and a gallery, still called after her name, and retaining the peculiar style of the architecture of her day. Some original orders for various repairs of the Castle show how little private accommodation was regarded in these days of public pageantry. The maids of honor requested to have the boarded partitions of their chambers carried up to the ceilings, as the pages could otherwise gaze in upon them, as they passed through the passages. There can be no doubt that an English palace of the 15th and 16th centuries had much fewer comforts than the most unpretending dwelling of a tradesman of the present day. The furniture was scanty and cumbrous; the linen was exceedingly scarce; of porcelain there was none; of glass scarcely any. The floors were covered with dirty rushes; the doors had crazy fastenings. Henry VIII. carried a smith about with him, with padlock and chain, to fasten "the door of his Highness' chamber;" and the cost and quality of the various materials for a new gown which the same king presented to Anne Boleyn,



are recorded with a minuteness and solemnity which the humblest servant maid would now scorn to bestow upon her finest holiday suit.

Windsor Castle was garrisoned by the parliament during the great civil war of Charles I.; and it was the last prison of that unfortunate monarch. Upon the restoration, Charles II. bestowed upon the Castle the doubtful honor of repairing it according to his foreign taste. We have no accurate records of what he destroyed; but the probability is, that in remodeling the interior he swept away some of the most valuable memorials that existed of the style of living amongst his predecessors. St. George's Hall was covered with paintings by Verrio, as were the ceilings of all the other state apartments; and truly nothing can be more disgusting than the nauseous flattery and bad taste of these productions. Most of the miserable improvements, as they were called, of this king, have been swept away from the exterior of the Castle; and, in many particulars, from the interior. St. George's Hall is once more a Gothic room, such as the "invincible knights of old" might have feasted in. Charles II., however, carried the terrace round the east and south fronts.

Queen Anne frequently resided at Windsor. In the reigns of the first and second Georges, it was neglected. George III. dwelt for many years in a white-washed house at the foot of his own palace; till at length he determined to occupy the old Castle. The apartments were little adapted to the notions of modern comfort, but the Royal Family continued to reside here till the death of the King. George IV. inhabited the Castle as it was, for a few months in 1823; but in 1824, its general decay and want of accommodation were brought under the notice of parliament. Commissioners were appointed for superintending the alterations, and a large sum was voted for the first outlay.

It does not fall within the object of this article to give any minute description of the interior of Windsor Castle. Round the east and south sides of the quadrangle runs a corridor, forming a magnificent gallery above, and connecting the various parts of the immense range of offices below. The principal floor of this corridor is superbly furnished with pictures and statues. The dining, drawing, and music rooms are of extraordinary dimensions, forming a fine suite whose grand oriel windows look out upon the eastern terrace. They are connected at the north-eastern angle, with the state apartments, some of which, particularly St. George's Hall, are used on occasions of high festival.

The state apartments are exhibited daily to the public. Several of them have been completely remodeled, under the parliamentary commission for the repairs of the Castle. The guard-room is now fitted up with great appropriateness: one of the most remarkable objects is a bust of Lord Nelson, having for its pedestal a portion of the mainmast of the Victory, his own ship, on the deck of which he gloriously fell. St. George's Hall has been entirely purified from the productions of the false taste of the time of Charles II. An adjoining chapel has been added to the original hall; so that it is now an oblong room of vast length, with a range of tall pointed-arch windows looking upon the square. Its walls, paneled with dark oak, are hung with the portraits of successive sovereigns of the Order of the Garter; and heraldic insignia of the ancient knights are borne on shields which surround the splendid room. Of the other new state apartments, the principal are the ball-room, glittering with burnished gold; and

the Waterloo gallery, in which are hung the fine series of portraits painted by Sir Thomas Lawrence, of the princes, warriors, and statesmen, who were instrumental in forwarding that great victory.

The remaining state apartments are pretty much in the same condition as they exhibited during the reign of George III. They present an assemblage of such objects as are usually shown in palaces and noble mansions. Here are state beds, whose faded hangings have been carefully preserved from periods when silk and velvet were the exclusive possessions of the high-born; chairs of ebony, whose weight compelled the sitter to remain in the place of the seat, and tables of silver, fine to look upon, but worthless to use. Here are also the gaudy ceilings of Verrio, where Charles II. and his Queen are humbly waited upon by Jupiter and Neptune; and the profligate who sold his country to Louis XIV. for a paltry bride, and degraded the English court by every vice, is represented as the pacificator of Europe, and the restorer of religion. But there are better things to be seen than these in the state apartments. There are many pictures of great beauty, and several of transcendent excellence. Here is the celebrated "Misers" of Quentin Matsys, painted, as it is said, by a blacksmith of Antwerp, as a proof of his pretensions to aspire to marry the daughter of a painter of the same place. The blacksmith, however, was no mean artist in other lines; for he is said to have executed the iron tomb of Edward IV. in St. George's Chapel—a most remarkable specimen of elaborate ingenuity. Here is the "Titian and Aretin," one of the finest specimens of the great master of the Venetian school; the "Death of Cleopatra," and the "Venus attired by the Graces," of Guido; the "Charles I. and the Duke of Hamilton," and "the Family of Charles I.," of Vandyck; and "the Silence," of Annibal Caracci. These are paintings, with many others that we cannot afford space to mention, which the best judges of art may come from the ends of Europe to gaze upon. Those who are captivated by gaudy colors, applied to the representation of meretricious charms, may gaze upon "the Beauties of the Court of Charles II."

The Round Tower is also exhibited to the public. There is nothing very remarkable in the apartments, except in the Armory, where there are some curious specimens of the cumbrous fire-arms that were carried by the infantry in the early days of gunpowder warfare, when matches held the place of flints, and the charge of powder was borne in little wooden boxes, hung about the shoulders. Here are two suits of mail, said to have belonged to John King of France, and David King of Scotland, who were prisoners in this tower. The legend is appropriate, but not trustworthy.

The object at Windsor which is most deserving the lingering gaze of the stranger, and which loses none of its charms after the acquaintance of years, is St. George's Chapel. The exquisite proportions, and the rich yet solemn ornaments of the interior of this unrivalled edifice, leave an effect upon the mind which cannot be described. The broad glare of day displays the admirable finishing of its various parts, as elaborate as the joinery work of a cabinet, and yet harmonizing in one massive and simple whole. The calm twilight does not abate the splendor of this building, while it adds to its solemnity; for then

"The storied window, richly dight,"

catches the last rays of the setting sun; and as the cathedral chant steals



over the senses, the genius of the place compels the coldest heart to be devout in a temple of such perfect beauty. The richly decorated roof, supported by clustered columns, which spread on each side like the branches of a grove—the painted windows, representing in glowing colors some remarkable subjects of Christian history—the banners and escutcheons of the Knights of the Garter, glittering in the choir above their carved stalls, within which are affixed the armorial bearings of each Knight Companion from the time of the founder, Edward III.—all these objects are full of interest, and powerfully seize upon the imagination. Though this building and its decorations are preëminently beautiful, it is perfectly of a devotional character; and if anything were wanting to carry the thoughts above the earth, the observer must feel the vanity of all greatness and all honor, save the true and imperishable glory of virtue, when he here treads upon the graves of Edward IV. and Henry VI., of Henry VIII. and Charles I., and remembers that, distinguished as these monarchs were for contrasts of good and evil fortune, the pride and the humility, the triumphs and the degradations, of the one and the other, are blended in the grave—

“Together meet th’ oppressor and th’ oppress’d”—

and they are now judged, as they wanted or exhibited those Christian excellencies which the humblest amongst us may attain. We shall not attempt any description of the various parts of this chapel.

There are not many monuments possessing merit as works of art in St. George’s Chapel. The cenotaph of Princess Charlotte is a performance of some excellence in particular figures; but as a whole it is in vicious taste. Edward IV. is buried here, beneath the steel tomb of Quentin Matsys; his unhappy rival Henry VI. lies in the opposite aisle, under a plain marble stone. Henry VIII. and Charles I. are entombed under the choir, without any memorial. At the foot of the altar is a subterranean passage communicating with the tomb-house, in which is the cemetery of the present race of kings.

The Round Tower, the ancient Keep of the Castle, is famous in the romance of history as the prison for many years of King James I. of Scotland, a true as well as a royal poet. The youth of this prince was passed in the Castle of St. Andrews, under the care of one of the finest spirits of that age, Bishop Henry Wardlaw, who founded the oldest university of Scotland. In 1405, when James had reached the age of fourteen, being then, by the death of his elder brother, David, Duke of Rothsay, the heir to the crown, it was determined to send him for greater security to the court of France. On his voyage, however, although a truce then subsisted between England and Scotland, he was seized near Flamborough Head by the ships of Henry IV., and carried with all his attendants to London. He remained in captivity during all the reign of that king, and also throughout that of his successor, although he had become King of Scotland by the death of his father, Robert III., who died of a broken heart, about a year after thus losing his only remaining son. During this prolonged detention, James, although treated with the show of respect appertaining to his rank, appears to have been, for a considerable time at least, held in strict durance. He was confined for two years in the Tower of London; but Windsor, according to tradition, was the place in which his years of captivity were mostly spent. This at least is the spot upon which his love and

genius have left their immortal light. It was while imprisoned here that, looking from his high window in the keep, he first beheld walking in the garden below, the Lady Jane Beaufort, granddaughter of John of Gaunt, and consequently a near relation of the royal house. This lady, who was a person of distinguished beauty, made an immediate impression on the heart of the captive prince. He has himself related the story of his passion in his poem called the *King's Quhair* (that is, the King's Quire or Book,) which he appears to have composed after he returned to his native country, and which is not only the eldest production of the Scottish muse, but by far the noblest poetical work of which our language has to boast for at least a century and a half after the death of Chaucer. In melody of verse, indeed, tenderness of sentiment, and picturesque description, it betokens throughout the worthy pupil and follower of that great master.

James was at last liberated, in the beginning of the year 1424, by Henry VI., on condition of his subjects undertaking to pay a sum of £40,000, which, oddly enough, was not demanded as his ransom, but as compensation for the expense of his maintenance, at the rate of £2,000 a year for the nineteen years of his detention. Before leaving England, he married the lady who had won his heart before he could offer her his hand, and she accompanied him to Scotland to share his throne. The latter portion of his life was almost as strangely variegated as his earlier years had been by the contrasting colors of romance. The light burned brightly for a short space, and was then quenched in blood. "He found," says Washington Irving, who has devoted a paper in his Sketch Book to this interesting royal bard, "his kingdom in great confusion, the feudal chieftains having taken advantage of the troubles and irregularities of a long interregnum to strengthen themselves in their possessions, and place themselves above the power of the laws. James sought to found the basis of his power in the affections of his people. He attached the lower orders to him by the reformation of abuses, the temperate and equable administration of justice, the encouragement of the arts of peace, and the promotion of every thing that could diffuse comfort, competency, and innocent enjoyment through the humblest ranks of society. He mingled occasionally among the common people, in disguise; visited their fire-sides; entered into their cares, their pursuits, and their amusements; informed himself of the mechanical arts, and how they could best be patronized and improved; and was thus an all-pervading spirit, watching with a benevolent eye over the meanest of his subjects. Having in this generous manner made himself strong in the hearts of the common people, he turned himself to curb the power of the factious nobility; to strip them of those dangerous immunities which they had usurped; to punish such as had been guilty of flagrant offences; and to bring the whole into proper obedience to the crown. For some time they bore this with outward submission, but secret impatience and brooding resentment. A conspiracy was at length formed against his life, at the head of which was his own uncle, Robert Stewart, Earl of Athol, who being too old himself for the perpetration of the deed of blood, instigated his grandson, Sir Robert Stewart, Sir Robert Graham, and others of less note, to commit the deed. They broke into his bedchamber, at the Dominican Convent, near Perth, where he was residing, and barbarously murdered him by oft-repeated wounds. His faithful queen, rushing to throw her tender body between him and the sword, was twice wounded in



the ineffectual attempt to shield him from the assassin, and it was not until she had been forcibly torn from his person, that the murder was accomplished.

"It was the recollection of this romantic tale of former times, and of the golden little poem which had its birth-place in this tower, that made me visit the old pile with more than common interest. The suit of armor hanging up in the hall, richly gilt and embellished, as if to figure in the tourney, brought the image of the gallant and romantic prince vividly before my imagination. I paced the deserted chambers where he had composed his poem; I leaned upon the window, and endeavored to persuade myself it was the very one where he had been visited by his vision; I looked out upon the spot where he had first seen the Lady Jane. It was the same genial and joyous month; the birds were again vying with each other in strains of liquid melody; every thing was bursting into vegetation, and budding forth the tender promise of the year. Time, which delights to obliterate the sterner memorials of human pride, seems to have passed lightly over this little scene of poetry and love, and to have withheld his desolating hand. Several centuries have gone by, yet the garden still flourishes at the foot of the tower. It occupies what was once the moat of the keep; and though some parts have been separated by dividing walls, yet others have still their arbors and shaded walks, as in the days of James, and the whole is sheltered, blooming, and retired. There is a charm about a spot that has been printed by the footsteps of departed beauty, and consecrated by the inspirations of the poet, which is heightened, rather than impaired, by the lapse of ages. It is, indeed, the gift of poetry to hallow every place in which it moves; to breathe round nature an odor more exquisite than the perfume of the rose, and to shed over it a tint more magical than the blush of morning.

"Others may dwell on the illustrious deeds of James, as a warrior and a legislator; but I have delighted to view him merely as the companion of his fellow men, the benefactor of the human heart, stooping from his high estate to sow the sweet flowers of poetry and song in the paths of common life. He was the first to cultivate the vigorous and hardy plant of Scottish genius, which has since become so prolific of the most wholesome and highly flavored fruit. He carried with him into the sterner regions of the north, all the fertilizing arts of southern refinement. He did everything in his power to win his countrymen to the gay, the elegant, and gentle arts, which soften and refine the character of a people, and wreath a grace round the loftiness of a proud and warlike spirit. He wrote many poems, which, unfortunately for the fulness of his fame, are now lost to the world; one which is still preserved, called "Christ's Kirk of the Green," shows how diligently he had made himself acquainted with the rustic sports and pastimes, which constitute such a source of kind and social feeling among the Scottish peasantry; and with what simple and happy humor he could enter into their enjoyments. He contributed greatly to improve the national music; and traces of his tender sentiment, and elegant taste, are said to exist in those witching airs still piped among the wild mountains and lonely glens of Scotland. He has thus connected his image with whatever is most gracious and endearing in the national character; he has embalmed his memory in song, and floated his name to after ages in the rich stream of Scottish melody. The recollection of these things was kindling at my heart, as I paced the silent scene of his imprisonment. I have visited Vau-

cluse with as much enthusiasm as a pilgrim would visit the shrine at Loretto; but I have never felt more poetical devotion than when contemplating the old tower and the little garden at Windsor, and musing over the romantic loves of the Lady Jane and the Royal Poet of Scotland."

## EMINENT MECHANICS AND THEIR INVENTIONS.

IT may not be uninteresting to our readers, nor aside from the plan of this work, to give some brief sketches of the lives of Eminent Mechanics, together with an account of their several inventions, and the important changes which have been wrought in the labors and occupations of men. We begin these notices with a sketch of that eminent individual,

SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT, the Founder of the Cotton Manufacture, born on the 23d of December, 1732, at Preston, Lancashire, England. He was the youngest of thirteen children. His parents were poor, and his education extremely limited. For nearly three years, he followed the profession of a barber. His first effort in mechanics was an attempt to discover the perpetual motion. Failing in this project, in 1767 he became acquainted with a clock maker, in whose employment he continued for some time.

Previously to the year 1760, the cotton manufacture of England was extremely simple and limited. The spinning was effected by the female part of the numerous cottagers, dispersed through the country, while the families were employed in weaving the yarn or thread into cloth. This operation was slow, and the quantity manufactured did not at this time equal the demand for home consumption, and for that which arose from abroad. To meet the exigency which had arisen, Arkwright, in 1767, seriously entered upon some invention for facilitating the spinning of cotton. Leaving Lancashire he removed to Nottingham, where, in 1769, he obtained his first patent for the *spinning frame*, a machine, in other words, for spinning that material with rollers. This was an original idea, suggested to him by seeing a red-hot iron bar elongated by being made to pass through two rollers. With this suggestion he constructed his frame. It consisted of two pairs of rollers turned by machinery. The lower roller of each pair was furrowed or fluted longitudinally, and the upper one was covered with leather, by which means the two had a sufficient hold upon the cotton passing between them. The cotton, when passing through the first pair of rollers, had the form of a thick but very soft cord, which is slightly pressed; but no sooner had the cotton carding or *roving*, as it is technically called, began to pass through the first pair of rollers, than it was received by the second pair, which were made to revolve with twice, thrice, or ten times the velocity of the first pair, according as was desired, so that the cotton was necessarily drawn out twice, thrice, or ten times smaller than when delivered from the first rollers.



The first mill erected for spinning cotton after this method, was at Nottingham, and was worked by horse power ; but in 1771, another mill was built at Cromford, in Derbyshire, to which motion was given by water, from which circumstance the machine was called the *water frame*, and the thread received the name of *water twist*.

By the year 1775, Arkwright had made important additional improvements in the processes of carding, roving and spinning, for which he took out a fresh patent. After a lapse of five years from the erection of his works at Cromford, the tide of fortune set in, and he and his associates, notwithstanding that his patent had been canceled by law, began to receive a large income from his establishments. In 1786, Mr. Arkwright received the honor of knighthood. For many years he labored under a severe asthma, yet to the latest period of his life he gave unremitted attention to his business. He died at Cromford on the 3d of August, 1792, in the sixtieth year of his age, leaving behind him a fortune of nearly half a million. In the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, it is well and justly remarked of him: "No man better deserved his good fortune, or has a stronger claim on the respect and gratitude of posterity. His inventions have opened a new and boundless field of employment; and while they have conferred infinitely more real benefit on his native country than she could have derived from the absolute dominion of Mexico or Peru, they have been *universally* productive of wealth and enjoyments."

Thus did a single individual, and he in the outset a poor barber, become the founder of a new branch of national industry, which has wrought wonders, not only in England, but throughout the civilized world. Previous to Arkwright's inventions, the number of persons employed in the cotton manufacture, has been estimated at 30,000; that number is now probably not much less than one million, and now, by the use of machinery, it is stated that one man and four children will spin as much yarn as 600 women and girls could spin seventy years ago.

JAMES HARGRAVES, the inventor of the spinning jenny, like Arkwright, was an Englishman. He was a weaver of Lancashire, and the inventor of a machine called the *spinning jenny*, and which owed its title, as tradition affirms, to a fair damsel, by the name of *Jane*.

Hargraves is said to have received the original idea of his machine from observing a one-thread wheel accidentally overturned upon the floor, when both the wheel and the spindle continued to revolve. The spindle was thus thrown from a horizontal to an upright position; and the thought struck him, that if a number of spindles were placed upright, and side by side, several threads might be spun at once. Upon this, he set himself to work; and, at length, constructed a machine by which, instead of one spindle and one thread at a time, a single person could spin eight threads at once, with the same facility as one. The date of this invention was some years before Arkwright obtained the patent for his water-frame. It was subsequently so improved that a little girl could work from eighty to one hundred and twenty spindles. But the jenny was applicable only to the spinning of cotton for weft, being unable to give to the yarn that degree of fineness and hardness, which is required in the warp. A linen warp was still obliged to be used, and no goods could yet be made all of cotton. Another invention was therefore wanting to complete the manufacture of cotton cloth. This was effected by Arkwright's water-frame, already mentioned.

After the invention of Arkwright's machinery, Hargraves' spinning jennies were still used, the former being the best adapted for spinning twist, the latter producing a softer thread, better fitted for the weft. The two inventions did not interfere with each other; but by neither of these admirable machines could the finer kind of yarn be made, since a thread of great tenuity had not strength sufficient to bear the water-frame. Another invention, which we shall soon notice, supplied this deficiency.

For a time, Hargraves kept his invention a secret, but its value at length becoming known, an outcry was raised against it, that it would throw multitudes out of employment, and a mob broke into his house, and destroyed his jenny. He fled to Nottingham in 1768, where he entered into partnership with a Mr. Thomas James, by whom conjointly, jennies were made and put into operation. In 1770, Hargraves obtained a patent for his jenny, but he seems to have received but little if any income from his invention. The spinning business, however, the partners continued until the death of Mr. Hargraves, which occurred in 1778. His widow received £400, from the surviving partner, for his share of the business.

SAMUEL CROMPTON, the inventor of the mule-jenny, was born on the 3d of December, 1753, at Firwood, in Lancashire, where his father held a farm of small extent; and, according to the custom of those days, employed a portion of his time in carding, spinning, and weaving. His father died while Samuel was very young. His mother was a pious woman, who brought up her son in the love and practice of the virtues which adorned her character.

When about sixteen years of age, young Crompton learned to spin upon a jenny of Hargraves' make, and occasionally wove what he had spun. Dissatisfied, however, with the quality of his yarn, he began to consider how it might be improved, and was thus naturally led to the construction of his novel spinning machine. He commenced his enterprise at the age of twenty-one years, and at the end of five years completed a machine, which, from its combining the principles of Arkwright's water-frame and Hargraves' jenny, was named the *mule*, or *mule-jenny*. Like the former it had rollers, and like the latter, spindles, to give the twist. This excellent machine has superseded the jenny, and to a considerable extent the water-frame, having been subsequently much improved, and worked by steam. Some of these machines, now at work in Manchester, turn from 1,100 to 2,200 spindles. Mules have even been made, called *self-acting mules*, that perform their work without the aid of a single spinner, and the only manual labor employed in them is that of children, who join the broken threads. Mule-spinning is the least laborious, owing to the slowness with which the machinery moves in making fine threads.

EDMUND CARTWRIGHT, the inventor of the power-loom, was born in the year 1743, in Nottinghamshire. At the usual age he entered the University College, Oxford, from whence he was subsequently elected a Fellow of Magdalen College. For the first forty years of his life, he gave no attention to the subject of mechanics; but at length a circumstance occurred, which led him to turn his attention to Arkwright's spinning machinery. The result of his deliberations on the subject, was the invention of his celebrated loom, which being worked by mechanical power, instead of the hand, was called the *power-loom*; and although his machine was imperfect, it was the parent of others, which are improvements, and which are now in



use. Cartwright's invention met with serious opposition for a time; one of his establishments containing 500 looms, built at Manchester, being destroyed, in 1790, by an exasperated mob. His invention, however, at the time of his death, which occurred in 1823, had surmounted all opposition, and it is stated that his looms had then so greatly increased as to perform the labor of 200,000 men.

His next invention was to *comb wool* by machinery, which caused still greater dissatisfaction among the working classes than even his power-looms. A petition, signed by the great body of wool-combers, was preferred to Parliament to suppress the obnoxious machines, but in this they failed.

We have already stated that great improvements have been made upon Cartwright's power-loom. The loom now generally employed in England, is called *Horrock's loom*. It is constructed entirely of iron, and is a neat, compact, simple machine, moving with great rapidity, and occupying so little space that several hundred may be worked in a single room of a large factory. It appears that the power-loom has several advantages over the hand-loom for some fabrics, not only producing them with greater expedition and at a cheaper rate, but of better quality, the regularity of the machinery being commanded with more certainty than that of human force. But it is chiefly in making cottons and other strong fabrics, that they can be used; fine muslins are yet mostly made by hand-looms. At present, there are in England and Scotland above 100,000 power-looms. And it is supposed that there are an equal number, if not greater, of cotton hand-looms. The improvements in relation to the power-loom, and other machinery employed in the manufacture of cotton, which have been introduced into various cotton establishments in the United States, some in one and some in another, we have not space to describe, though it is believed they are many.

ELI WHITNEY, the inventor of the cotton-gin, was born in Westborough, Worcester county, Massachusetts, December 8th, 1765. His parents were highly respectable and industrious. His father was a farmer.

Young Whitney early manifested indications of great mechanical genius, and at the age of fifteen or sixteen years, he suggested to his father the project of making nails, which at the time of the revolutionary war were in great demand, and bore a high price. His father, acceding to his plan, procured him a few tools, and permitted him to set up a manufactory. He entered upon his project with great spirit, and though he wrought alone, his enterprize was successful, and to his father profitable.

At the age of nineteen, he conceived the idea of obtaining a liberal education, and although many difficulties were thrown in his way, he surmounted them all, and entered Yale College in 1789. On taking his degree in the autumn of 1792, he engaged as private tutor, in the family of a Mr. B. of Georgia. On his arrival, however, he was informed that that gentleman had employed another person; upon which he took up his residence, for a time, in the family of a Mrs. Green, where he employed himself in making a kind of frame called tambour.

"While here employed, the family of his hostess were visited one day by a party of gentlemen, consisting principally of officers who had served under the general in the revolutionary army. The conversation turning upon the state of agriculture, it was regretted that there were no means of cleaning the seed from the green seed cotton, which might otherwise be profitably raised on lands unsuited for rice. But, until ingenuity could

devise some machine which would greatly facilitate the process of cleaning, *it was vain to think of raising cotton for market. Separating one pound of the clean staple from the seed was a day's work for a woman*; but the time usually devoted to the picking of the cotton was the evening, after the labor of the field was over. Then the slaves, men, women and children, were collected in circles with one whose duty it was to rouse the dozing and quicken the indolent. While the company were engaged in this conversation, 'Gentlemen,' said Mrs. Greene, 'apply to my young friend, Mr. Whitney; he can make anything;' at the same time showing them the tambour frame and several other articles which he had made. She introduced the gentlemen to Whitney himself, extolling his genius, and commending him to their notice and friendship. He modestly disclaimed all pretensions to mechanical genius, and on their naming the object, replied that he had never seen cotton seed in his life. Mrs. G. said to one of the gentlemen, 'I have accomplished my aim—Mr. Whitney is a very deserving young man, and to bring him into notice was my object. The interest which our friends now feel for him, will, I hope, lead to his getting some employment to enable him to prosecute the study of the law.'"

Whitney at once entered upon the task of inventing and constructing the cotton-gin, which has added so much to his fame, and which has produced an entire revolution in the history of the cotton manufacture in the United States, and indeed of the world.

It is not necessary in this place to enter into a description of this important machine. Nor will it consist with our limits to give an account of the troubles and perplexities which this eminent man encountered—the numerous lawsuits to which he was subjected—the vast expense which he incurred in efforts to establish his legitimate claims. Few other men, it is believed, could have sustained such excessive fatigue and privations, or could have borne up under such complicated difficulties and vexations, as were his lot. At times, his health was seriously affected, and even his life jeopardized. Before the final decision in favor of his patent was had, the term of his right had nearly expired. And it is stated that "more than sixty suits had been instituted in Georgia, before a single decision on the merits of his case was obtained." A gentleman who sometimes acted as his legal adviser observes, that "in all his experience in the thorny profession of the law, he has never seen a case of such perseverance, under such persecution; nor," he adds, "do I believe that I ever knew any other man, who would have met them with equal coolness and firmness, or who would finally have obtained even the partial success which he had. He always called on me in New York, on his way south, when going to attend his endless trials, and to meet the mischievous contrivances of men who seemed inexhaustible in their resources of evil. Even now, after thirty years, my head aches to recollect his narratives of new trials, fresh disappointments and accumulated wrongs."

In 1798, impressed with the uncertainty of all his hopes founded upon the cotton-gin, he entered upon a new enterprize—the manufacture of arms for the United States. With this object in view, he purchased a site for his works, at the foot of a celebrated precipice, called East Rock, near the city of New Haven. Here he erected a large building, and commenced operations with the greatest zeal. Most of his machinery was of his own invention, and here he greatly improved the art of manufacturing arms.



In his contracts with the general government, and with some of the States, he was successful, so that he accumulated a handsome fortune.

The death of Mr. Whitney occurred, after a protracted period of great suffering, induced by a formidable and tedious disease, under which he long labored, on the 8th of January, 1825. He left to his family a competence; but had he had his just deserts, his fortune would doubtless have compared with the few millionaires who exist in the land. Years since, it was the language of Judge Johnson, (and if then true, how much more true now!) "if we should assert that the benefits of this invention exceed 100,000,000 of dollars, we can prove the assertion by correct calculation."

We conclude this brief sketch of this eminent man by presenting to our readers the following remarks of a distinguished scholar, while on a visit to the cemetery of New Haven, where his ashes repose. After alluding to that distinguished individual, Gen. Humphreys, who first introduced fine wool sheep into the United States, he observes: "But Whitney's monument perpetuates the name of a still greater public benefactor. His simple name would have been epitaph enough, with the addition perhaps of 'the inventor of the cotton-gin.' How few of the inscriptions in Westminster Abbey could be compared with that! Who is there that, like him, has given his country a machine—the product of his own skill—which has furnished a large part of its population, 'from childhood to old age, with a lucrative employment; by which their debts have been paid off; their capitals increased; *their lands trebled in value?*' It may be said, indeed, that this belongs to the physical and material nature of man, and ought not to be compared with what has been done by the intellectual benefactors of mankind; the Miltons, the Shakspeares, and the Newtons. But is it quite certain that anything short of the highest intellectual vigor—the brightest genius—is sufficient to invent one of these extraordinary machines? Place a common mind before an oration of Cicero and a steam-engine, and it will despair of rivaling the latter as much as the former; and we can by no means be persuaded, that a peculiar aptitude for combining and applying the simple powers of mechanics, so as to produce these marvelous operations, does not imply a vivacity of the imagination, not inferior to that of the poet and the orator." And in concluding he asks,—“Has not he who has trebled the value of land, created capital, rescued the population from the necessity of emigrating, and covered a waste with plenty—has not he done a service to the country of the highest moral and intellectual character? Prosperity is the parent of civilization, and all its refinements; and every family of prosperous citizens added to the community, is an addition of so many thinking, inventing, moral, and immortal natures.”

His tomb is after the model of that of Scipio at Rome. It is simple and beautiful, and promises to endure for years. It bears the following inscription:—

ELI WHITNEY,

The inventor of the Cotton Gin.

Of useful science and arts, the efficient patron and improver.

In the social relations of life, a model of excellence.

While private affection weeps at his tomb, his country honors his memory.

Born Dec. 8, 1765.—Died Jan. 8, 1825.

SAMUEL SLATER, the father of the American Cotton Manufactures, was born in Belper, in Derbyshire, England, June 9th, 1768. His father was

an independent farmer, who gave to his son the advantages of an ordinary English education, and then indentured him to the cotton spinning business with Jedediah Strutt, a partner of the celebrated Arkwright.

Having served his indenture with Mr. Strutt, Slater embarked for America in the year 1789, and, after a tedious passage of sixty-six days, arrived at New York. Previous to his arrival, every attempt to spin cotton warp or twist, or any other yarn, by water power, had totally failed, and efforts for the importation of the patent machinery of England, had proved unsuccessful. Some interest had been excited in Philadelphia, New York, Providence, and other places; but it was found impossible to compete with the superior machinery of Derbyshire. Learning that a Mr. Brown, in Providence, was in want of a manager, Slater tendered him his services, and was successful in arrangements to commence cotton spinning at Pawtucket, under the firm of Almy, Brown & Slater. In 1790, Mr. Slater put in operation his first machinery in a clothier's shop, at the western end of Pawtucket bridge. Early in 1793, the firm built a small factory in Pawtucket, which is now called the "old mill," where they slowly added to their machinery, as the sales of yarn increased, but it was only in 1799 that the sales of yarn became sufficiently promising to induce another company to erect the second cotton mill establishment in Rhode Island, and to encourage the firm to which Mr. Slater belonged to make any considerable additions to their machinery in the "old mill."

From this time, greater attention was paid to the cotton manufacture, and now, in every part of New England, and various other portions of the country, large establishments have gone into operation, and thousands of bales of cotton are annually used, and millions of yards of various cotton fabrics manufactured.

Mr. Slater's death occurred in 1835. He left a character without a blemish, and will long be remembered as one of our greatest public benefactors. Let it be remembered, that when he left England, he took no drawings of any sort, but trusted solely to the powers of his memory to enable him to construct the complicated machinery. Many difficulties, indeed, did he encounter, for at that period of our history there were few men of much mechanical genius, or rather there had been no opportunity to call it forth. But the genius of Slater was adequate for all unforeseen difficulties which arose. One only can be mentioned. No good card-leather could be procured, and even the punctures for the insertion of the teeth were to be made by hand. The consequence was that the punctures were too large, and the teeth fell back from their proper place. But it occurred to Slater, by means of a piece of grindstone, to beat the teeth to a proper crook, which done, the machinery worked to perfection. Such was his practical common sense, which, united to persevering industry, has led to the manufacture of one of our raw materials, the value and importance of which can scarcely be estimated.

JAMES WATT.—"The steam engine," says Dr. Bigelow, "may be justly considered as the greatest triumph which has been achieved by modern genius and perseverance. The following are some of the most interesting facts in its history.

"The ancient Greeks and Romans appear to have been acquainted with the power of steam to produce motion, and invented the eolipile, which was a close vessel containing water, and which gave out a forcible current of



steam whenever the water was heated. The force of this current was used by Hero to produce a revolving motion.

"The power of confined steam, acting by its pressure, was discovered by the Marquis of Worcester, and an account of its effect published by him in 1663. He produced a steam-power sufficient to burst a cannon, and constructed a machine capable of raising water to the height of forty feet. He has not, however, left any drawings or particular description of his machine.

"In 1698, a patent was granted to Thomas Savery, for a method of raising water by steam. This apparatus consisted of a boiler, a separate steam vessel, and pipes commanded by valves. The steam from the boiler was first admitted, so as to fill the steam vessel. It was then condensed, and the steam-vessel filled with water, which rose by the atmospheric pressure from the well or mine. The steam was then readmitted, and the water in the vessel was driven upward to the top of the pipes, and discharged.

"About the year 1705, Thomas Newcomen constructed a working steam-engine, which has since been called the *atmospheric* engine. It contained a cylinder and piston, and an alternating beam, which was applied to raise water by working a pump. The steam was condensed in the cylinder itself, and the valves were moved by the hand, until an attendant contrived to make the machine move its own valves, by attaching strings to the working-beam."

For half a century from this time, no essential improvements were made in the application of steam as an agent in mechanics. The engine itself, however, was more extensively employed notwithstanding its defects; but in the beginning of the year 1769, a new spring to the energies of this machine was given by the discoveries and inventions of James Watt, which more than doubled the power which it had formerly possessed.

This eminent mechanic was born at Greenock, on the 19th of January, 1736. His father was a merchant, and also one of the magistrates of that town. He early evinced a great love for mechanical science. At the age of eighteen, he was apprenticed to a mathematical instrument maker, in London; but the state of his health forced him, within about a year, to return to Scotland. In 1757, he was appointed mathematical instrument maker to the college at Glasgow. Here he enjoyed the friendship and intimacy of the celebrated Dr. Black, the discoverer of the principle of latent heat, and Mr. (afterwards Dr.) John Robinson, so well known by his treatises on mechanical science. In the winter of 1763-4, a small model of Newcomen's engine was sent to him to be repaired. The examination of this model discovered to Watt its various defects, and excited him to the attempt of remedying them. The result of his persevering efforts was numerous and important improvements, but those of greatest value were the following: 1. He introduced the separate condenser. 2. He applied the double action of steam, by closing the top of the cylinder and admitting the steam alternately at each end. 3. He converted to use the expansive power of steam, by cutting off the current before the end of the stroke. Mr. Watt also invented the principle of parallel motion, and applied the governor, to regulate the supply of steam.

The death of this eminent man occurred on the 25th of August, 1819 in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

OLIVER EVANS was born in Newport, Delaware, about the year 1756. Little is preserved respecting his early history. At the age of fourteen he was apprenticed to a wagon maker. At twenty-three he engaged in card-teeth making, and about this time invented a machine which would manufacture three thousand a minute; but he was defrauded of a great share of the benefits derived from it. To Mr. Evans is accorded the merit of having constructed the first high-pressure or non-condensing steam engine. This he accomplished in 1802. And this sort of engine is the only one that can be used on railways, and is now in universal use on the Mississippi, and other rapid rivers where great power is used.

"In respect to this kind of engine it may be observed," in the language of Dr. Comstock, "the piston is pressed up and down by the force of the steam alone, and without the assistance of a vacuum. The additional power of steam required for this purpose is very considerable, being equal to the entire pressure of the atmosphere on the surface of the piston. This pressure on a piston of thirteen inches in diameter amounts to nearly two tons. In the low pressure engine, in which a vacuum is formed on one side of the piston, the force of steam required to move it is diminished by the amount of atmospheric pressure equal to the size of the piston. But in the high pressure engine, the piston works in both directions against the weight of the atmosphere, and hence requires an additional power of steam equal to the weight of the atmosphere on the piston. These engines are however much more simple and cheap than the low pressure, since the condenser, cold water pump, air pump, and cold water cistern, are dispensed with; nothing more being necessary than the boiler, cylinder, piston and valves. Hence, for railroads, and all locomotive purposes, the high pressure engines are and must be used. With respect to engines used on board of steamboats, the low pressure are universally employed by the English, and it is well known that few accidents from the bursting of machinery have ever happened in that country. In most of their boats two engines are used, each of which turns a crank, and thus the necessity of a fly-wheel is avoided. In this country high pressure engines are in common use for boats, though they are not universally employed. In some, two engines are worked, and the fly-wheel dispensed with, as in England. The great number of accidents which have happened in this country, whether on board of low or high pressure boats, must be attributed in a great measure to the eagerness of our countrymen to be transported from place to place with the greatest possible speed, all thoughts of safety being absorbed in this passion. It is, however, true, from the very nature of the case, that there is far greater danger from the bursting of the machinery in the high than in the low pressure engines, since not only the cylinder, but the boiler and steam pipes must sustain a much higher pressure in order to gain the same speed, other circumstances being equal."

It has also been claimed for Mr. Evans, that he constructed a carriage propelled by steam, named the *Oructor Amphibolis*, which was the first application in America of steam power to the propelling of land carriages; in other words, the first *American locomotive*. This was in 1804, or '5.

There is reason, however, to believe that, although the steam carriage erected by Mr. Evans was, so far as he was concerned, an original invention, he was not the first who erected such a machine, and of course the merit of priority does not belong to him. This it is believed, will be suffi



ciently evident by the following statement of a respectable clergyman, who has been a resident of Hartford, Conn., for more than fifty years—Rev. Gurdon Robbins. He says:

"About the year 1798, Mr. Apollos Kingsley, an eminent artist of this city, (Hartford,) remarked to a friend that the day was not far distant when horse power would be dispensed with for public conveyances, and steam power be substituted in its stead. The declaration of Mr. Kingsley being communicated by his friend to a circle of gentlemen, the latter enjoyed a season of merriment at the visionary scheme of their fellow citizen, whose sanity on account of it was called in question. The friend of Mr. Kingsley, however, defended the soundness of his opinion; and, in proof of it, proceeded to state that he had been admitted in the private workshop of the former, where he had actually seen the *model of a locomotive, and which in his presence was propelled by the power of steam along a plank, one end of which rested on the floor, and the other against the wall, forming an inclined plane.*

"Mr. Kingsley was suddenly removed by death in the midst of his successful experiments. After his death, the writer of this statement saw, and himself examined in his private workshop, which occupied a part of his dwelling house, a *large locomotive designed to run upon a smooth turn-pike road.* The writer has no knowledge that Mr. Kingsley had then thought of railroads, but he has no doubt that had he lived to perfect his plans, he would have been another Fulton. The statement was confirmed by the late Theodore Dwight, Esq., who was a friend of Mr. Kingsley, and furnished him with pecuniary means to carry forward his experiments. By the sudden death of Mr. Kingsley, Mr. Dwight became a sufferer to a considerable amount."

A statement similar to the foregoing, certified by the late T. Dwight, Esq., was published by Mr. Robbins in the *Connecticut Courant*, a few years since, and which, at the request of the "Historical Society of Connecticut," was placed among their archives, where it still remains. The death of Mr. Kingsley occurred in 1802. He did not live to finish his larger locomotive. The model he did finish, and put it in actual operation. Hence, there is sufficient ground to claim that the *first locomotive ever in actual operation was the invention of a Connecticut man, and that it was first put in operation in the city of Hartford.*

We add, in respect to Mr. Evans, that his death occurred at Philadelphia, on the 21st of April, 1819, and was occasioned by an inflammation of the lungs.

JOHN FITCH.—It does not comport with the character of our work to enter into the discussion of the question, "Who invented the first steam-boat?" It may be admitted that the plan of applying steam power to the propulsion of boats was conceived by several, in various countries, in the sixteenth century, but the honor of the first decidedly successful experiment of this kind belongs, it is believed, to *John Fitch, a native of Connecticut.* Of the time and place of his birth, he says:

"The 21st of January, 1743, old style, was the fatal time of bringing me into existence. The house I was born in was upon the line between Hartford and Windsor, (Connecticut.) It was said I was born in Windsor; but from the singularity of my make, shape, disposition and fortune in the world, I am inclined to the belief that it was the design of Heaven that I

should be born on the *very line*; and not in any township whatever; yet am happy also that it did not happen between two States, that I can say I was born somewhere."

The father of Fitch was a farmer, in good circumstances, but who seems to have manifested no great regard to either the education or comfort of his children. When about 17 years of age, young Fitch expressed a desire to go to sea, and having received the reluctant consent of his father, shipped on board a sloop bound to New York; whence, not liking his employer, he left, and went on board a sloop bound to Providence. These short experiments ended his sea-faring life. We next find him engaged in clock making, which business he seems to have pursued with varied success for several years. Subsequently, on the breaking out of the revolution, he espoused the popular cause; and, for a time, usefully engaged himself in repairing arms for the continental army. Sometime after, he returned from the west, where he had sojourned, and settled in one of the Atlantic States. At length, in the year 1785, he began to turn his attention to steam as applicable to the propulsion of carriages and vehicles. In 1788 he obtained a patent for the application of steam to navigating the waters of the States of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, &c. After encountering many obstacles, his steamboat was finished. The following description of it, which is from Fitch himself, taken from the *Columbian (Philadelphia) Magazine*, Vol. 1., for December, 1786, will convey some intelligible notice of it:

"The cylinder is to be horizontal, and the steam to work with equal force at each end. The mode by which we obtain a vacuum is, it is believed, entirely new, as is also the method of letting the water into it and throwing it off against the atmosphere without any friction. It is expected that the cylinder, which is of twelve inches diameter, will move a clear force of eleven or twelve cwt. after the frictions are deducted; this force is to be directed against a wheel eighteen inches in diameter. The piston is to move about three feet, and each vibration of it gives the axis about forty evolutions. Each evolution of the axis moves twelve oars or paddles five and a half feet; they work perpendicularly, and are represented by the strokes of a paddle of a canoe. As six of the paddles are raised from the water, six more are entered, and the two sets of paddles make their strokes of about eleven feet in each evolution. The crank of the axis acts upon the paddles, about one-third of their length from their lower ends, on which part of the oar the whole force of the axis is applied. The engine is placed in the bottom of the boat, about one-third from the stern, and both the action and the reaction turn the wheel the same way.

"When ready, a day was appointed, and the experiment made in the following manner: a mile was measured in Front (Water) street, Philadelphia, and the bounds projected at right angles, as exactly as could be to the wharf, where a flag was placed at each end, and also a stop-watch. The boat was ordered under way at dead water, or when the tide was found to be without movement. As the boat passed one flag it struck, and at the same instant the watches were set off; as the boat reached the other flag it was also struck, and the watches instantly stopped. Every precaution was taken before witnesses; the time was shown to all; the experiment declared to be fairly made, and the boat was found to go at the rate of *eight miles an hour*, or one mile in seven minutes and a half;



on which the shares were signed over with great satisfaction by the rest of the company. It afterwards went *eighty miles in a day!*

"The governor and council of Pennsylvania were so highly gratified with our labors, that without their intentions being previously known to us, Governor Mifflin, attended by the council in procession, presented to the company, and placed in the boat, a superb silk flag, prepared expressly, and containing the arms of Pennsylvania."

Such was the commencement of steam navigation. Had Fitch possessed adequate funds, or had he been properly patronized, this mode of propelling vessels would have continued. In June, 1792, the boat was laid up, the company which had been formed declining to advance more funds. But the conviction of Fitch of the importance of his invention continued. About this time he addressed a letter to Mr. Rittenhouse, one of the company, in which he says, "it would be much easier to carry a first-rate man-of-war by steam than a boat, as we would not be cramped for room, nor would the weight of the machinery be felt. *This, sir, will be the mode of crossing the Atlantic in time, whether I bring it to perfection or not, for packets and armed vessels. I mean to make use of the wind when we have it, and in a calm to pursue the voyage at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour.*"

It may be added, that to his dying day, his enthusiasm continued unabated. *Steam* was the constant theme of his discourses. But, like other pioneers in great and magnificent projects, he was destined never to see his plans accomplished, or hopes realized. He became poor and friendless, and received a gratuitous home for a time with a hospitable relative in Sharon, Connecticut. In 1796, he went into Kentucky, to look after some lands which he had purchased while a surveyor there some years before, and there, being seized with a fever, he died.

"In conformity with his wishes, he was buried on the shores of the Ohio, that he might repose 'where the song of the boatman would enliven the stillness of his resting place, and the music of the steam-engine sooth his spirit!'"

ROBERT FULTON.—This gentleman was born in Little Britain, Lancaster county, Pennsylvania. He was of Irish descent, his father having emigrated from Ireland. His mother, though herself of an Irish family, was born in Pennsylvania. Robert early evinced a great fondness for mechanics and the fine arts. At the age of seventeen, he derived considerable emolument from portrait and landscape painting, in Philadelphia.

It is not necessary for our purpose to follow Fulton in his various changes of life, which for several years were frequent. Suffice it to say, by the advice of a friend, he repaired to England, where he took lessons in painting from the distinguished American artist, Mr. West, with whom he continued for several years.

His genius, however, was decidedly mechanical; and, for several years, he devoted himself to various projects of a mechanical nature, and returned to his native country in 1806. Here, he devoted himself, for a time, to the improvement of a *torpedo*, which he had invented while in England. In 1807, he succeeded in blowing up a large hulk brig, which had been prepared for the purpose. In 1810, Congress made an appropriation of \$5,000 for further experiments in sub-marine explosions, which gave Mr. Fulton another opportunity to exercise his skill. His success, however, was not equal to his anticipations.

We have now reached an important period in the life of Mr. Fulton. While in Europe, the subject of navigation by steam had received the attention of Mr. Fulton, in connection with Chancellor Livingston, at that time minister to France. This was in 1801. Prior, however, to this, "the Legislature of New York had passed an act, (March, 1798,) vesting Mr. Livingston with the exclusive right of navigating all kinds of boats, which might be propelled by the force of fire or steam, on all the waters within the territory or jurisdiction of the state of New York, for the term of twenty years from the passing of the act; upon the condition that he should, within a twelve month, build such a boat, the mean of whose progress should not be less than four miles an hour.

"Mr. Livingston, immediately after the passage of this act, built a boat of about thirty tons burden, which was propelled by steam; but as she was incompetent to fulfill the condition of the law, she was abandoned.

"Soon after, he entered into a contract with Fulton, by which it was, among other things, agreed, that a patent should be taken out in the United States, in Mr. Fulton's name, which Mr. Livingston well knew could not be done without Mr. Fulton's taking an oath that the improvement was solely his."

Under this contract an experimental boat was built in Paris, in 1803. Her length was 66 feet, and breadth 8 feet. The experiment, however, was not entirely satisfactory, owing to the extremely defective fabrication of the machinery. The invention was slow, but the trial evinced one thing, that with better machinery and more care, steam navigation was practicable.

Soon after the arrival of Mr. Fulton in New York, already noticed, he began building his first American boat. In the spring of 1807, she was launched from the ship-yard of Charles Brown, on the East river. The engine was made in England, by Messrs. Watt and Bolton. Great incredulity prevailed among men of distinction as to her success; but on the first movement of the boat from the wharf, the triumph of Fulton was apparent. She moved easily and gracefully upon the water. Soon after she made a trip to Albany. In a letter to his friend, Mr. Barlow, Mr. Fulton gave the following account of her voyage. "My steamboat voyage to Albany and back (in the Clermont,) has turned out rather more favorable than I calculated. The distance from New York to Albany is one hundred and fifty miles; I ran it up in thirty-two hours and down in thirty. I had a light breeze against me the whole way, both going and coming, and the voyage has been performed wholly by the power of the steam engine. I overtook many sloops and schooners beating to windward, and parted with them as if they had been at anchor. The power of propelling boats by steam is now fully proved. The morning I left New York, there were not perhaps thirty persons in the city, who believed that the boat would ever move one mile an hour, or be of the least utility; and while we were putting off from the wharf, which was crowded with spectators, I heard a number of sarcastic remarks. This is the way in which ignorant men compliment what they call philosophers and projectors. Having employed much time, money, and zeal, in accomplishing this work, it gives me, as it will you, great pleasure to see it fully answer my expectations. It will give a cheap and quick conveyance, to the merchandize on the Mississippi, Missouri, and other great rivers, which are now laying open their treasures



to the enterprize of our countrymen; and although the prospect of personal emolument has been some inducement to me, yet I feel infinitely more pleasure in reflecting upon the immense advantage that my country will derive from the invention."

Thus an achievement was effected which has in subsequent years changed to a great extent the inland navigation of the whole country. Our rivers are thronged with boats of the largest capacity—fitted up with every possible convenience and elegance, and propelled by engines, beautiful in their construction, and most wonderful in their power; and not only so, but the various oceans of the world are now navigated with ease and safety. Distance is nearly annihilated. Voyages between England and America are now a weekly occurrence.

The death of Mr. Fulton occurred on the 14th of February, 1815. He did not live to see a steamboat actually crossing the Atlantic, although he had sanguine expectations that this project would ere long be accomplished. The first steam vessel which made that voyage was the American ship, *Savannah*, in 1819.

If Mr. Fulton was not the original inventor of steamboats, nor their perfector, still, what has been appropriately said of Arkwright, may justly be said of him: "The several inventions which his patent embraced, whether they were his or not, would, probably, but for him, have perished with their authors; none of whom except himself, had the determination and courage, to face the multiplied fatigues and dangers that lay in the way of achieving a *practical* exemplification of what they had conceived in their minds."

SAMUEL F. B. MORSE.—This distinguished artist is still living, and has his residence in the State of New York. He is a son of the late Rev. Jedediah Morse, D. D., a clergyman of distinction, formerly of Charlestown, Massachusetts. Mr. Morse graduated at Yale College, in 1810. For many years he had occupied an enviable reputation, both in Europe and America, as a painter. Within a few years, he has produced a wonder-working and important machine—the *Electro Magnetic Telegraph*—which is now in successful operation over thousands of miles in various states of the Union; and lines are established between all the important cities of the country, from Maine to Louisiana.

M. DAGUERRE'S distinction rests upon an invention within a few years promulgated to the world, and which must be pronounced to be one of the most wonderful and curious of the age.

The process of taking a human likeness by the method pointed out by M. Daguerre, may be divided into eight operations: 1st. Polishing the plate. 2d. Exposing it to the vapor of iodine. 3d. Exposing it to the vapor of bromine. 4th. Adjusting the plate in the camera obscura. 5th. Exposing it to the vapor of mercury. 6th. Removing the sensitive coating. 7th. Gilding the picture. 8th. Coloring the picture.

The plates are made of thin sheets of silver, plated on copper. It is said that, from some unknown reason, the photographic impression takes more readily on these plates than on entire silver. The silver is only thick enough to prevent reaching the copper in the process of scouring and polishing.

The polishing is considered one of the most difficult and important manipulations in the art, and hence hundreds of pages have been written to

describe the various methods devised and employed by different artists and amateurs.

We can only state here that the plate is first scoured with emory to take off the impressions of the hammer in planishing; then pumice, finely powdered, is used, with alcohol, to remove all oily matter, and, after several other operations, it is finally given the last finish by means of a velvet cushion covered with rouge.

After the plate is polished, it is instantly covered from the breath, the light, and the air, nor must it be touched, even on the edges, with the naked hand; but, being placed on a little frame, with the face down, it is carried to a box containing iodine, over which it is placed as a cover. Here it remains, for a moment or two, in a darkened room, being often examined by the artist, whose eye decides, by the yellowish color to which the silver changes, the instant when the metal has combined with the proper quantity of iodine. This is a very critical part of the process, and requires a good eye and much experience. The vapor of iodine forms a film of the iodide of silver on the metal, and it is this which makes it sensible to the light of the camera, by which the picture is formed. If the film of iodine is too thick, the picture will be too deep and dark; if too thin, either a light impression, or none at all, will be made.

Bromine is a peculiar substance, in the liquid form, of a deep red color, exceedingly volatile, very poisonous, and having an odor like chlorine and iodine combined. It is extracted from sea-water, and the ashes of marine vegetables.

This, the photographic artists call an *accelerating* substance, because it diminishes the time required to take the picture in the camera obscura.

The iodized plate will receive the picture without it, but the sitter has to remain without motion before the camera for several minutes, whereas, by using the bromine, the impression is given in a minute or a minute and a quarter. Now, as the least motion in the sitter spoils the likeness, it is obvious that bromine is of much importance to the art, especially to nervous people and children.

The bromine is contained in a glass vessel, closely covered, and is applied by sliding the plate over it for a few seconds.

The plate is now ready for the photographic impression by means of the camera. If a likeness of a person is to be taken, he is already placed before the instrument, in a posture which the artist thinks will give the most striking picture, and is told that the only motion he can make for half a minute to a minute, is *winking*.

The artist now takes the plate from a dark box, and, under cover of a black cloth, fixes it in the focus of the lens. This is done in a light room, with the rays of the sun diffused by means of white curtains.

The artist having left the sitter for the specified time, returns, and removes the plate for the next operation. Still, not the least visible change has taken place on the bright surface of the silver. If examined ever so nicely, no sign of a human face is to be seen, and the sitter who sees the plate, and knows nothing of the art, wonders what next is to be done.

The plate is next exposed to the fumes of mercury. This is contained in an iron box, in a darkened room, and is heated by means of an alcohol lamp, to about 180 degrees Fah. The cover of the box being removed, the plate is laid on, with the silver side down, in its stead.



After a few minutes the artist examines it, and, by a faint light, now sees that the desired picture begins to appear. It is again returned for a few minutes longer, until the likeness is fully developed.

If too long exposed to the mercury, the surface of the silver turns to a dark ashy hue, and the picture is ruined; if removed too soon, the impression is too faint to be distinct to the eye.

The next operation consists in the removal of the iodine, which not only gives the silver a yellowish tinge, but, if suffered to remain, would darken and finally ruin the picture. Formerly this was done by a solution of common salt, but experiment has shown that the peculiar chemical compound called *hyposulphite of soda*, answers the purpose far better. This is a beautiful, transparent, crystallized salt, prepared by chemists for the express purpose.

A solution of this is poured on the plate until the iodine is entirely removed, and now the picture, for the first time, may be exposed to the light of the sun without injury; but the plate has still to be washed in pure water, to remove all remains of the hyposulphite, and then heated and dried over an alcohol lamp.

Having washed the picture thoroughly, it is then placed on the fixing stand, which is to be adjusted previously to a perfect level, and as much solution of chloride of gold as the plate can retain, poured on. The alcohol lamp is then held under all parts of it successively. At first the image assumes a dark color, but in a few minutes grows light, and acquires an intense and beautiful appearance.

The lamp is now removed, and the plate is again well washed in pure water, and then dried by heat.

Before gilding, the impression may be removed by repolishing the plate, when it is perfectly restored; but, after gilding, no polishing nor scouring will so obliterate the picture as to make it answer for a second impression. Such plates are either sold for the silver they contain, or are replated by the electrotype process.

Coloring Daguerreotype pictures is an American invention, and has been considered a secret, though at the present time it is done with more or less success by most artists.

The colors consist of the oxides of several metals, ground to an impalpable powder. They are laid on in a dry state, with soft camel hair pencils, after the process of gilding. The plate is then heated, by which they are fixed. This is a very delicate part of the art, and should not be undertaken by those who have not a good eye, and a light hand.

DR. HORACE WELLS was born in Hartford, Vermont, in the year 1815; after completing his education, he commenced the practice of dentistry, which he successfully prosecuted in Boston, and in Hartford, Conn., and removed in 1847 to the city of New York, where he pursued the same profession. His genius for invention was decided, and his mind was often engaged in devising new mechanical processes; he introduced improvements in dental instruments, and in the blow-pipe; he also invented a gold solder, and an improved shower-bath. We name these merely as evidence of his ingenious turn of mind; his fame rests alone upon the fact, that he discovered the means of producing insensibility during surgical operations. His first experiments were made with nitrous oxide gas, but since then sulphuric ether, and a new compound called "Chloroform," have been used for the

same purposes—the “Chloroform” being most generally adopted. But the idea of employing an agent to produce insensibility was conceived, and its practical importance first established by Dr. Wells. He commenced, and satisfactorily tested his experiments in 1844, while a citizen of Connecticut, and the Legislature of that State, in the spring of 1847, passed resolutions attesting the value of the discovery, and acknowledging him as the author. Some months afterwards, the Medical Society of Paris appointed him an honorary member, and passed a vote declaring that to him “is due all the honor of having first discovered and successfully applied the uses of vapors or gases, whereby surgical operations can be performed without pain.”

It is proper to observe here, that these gases, which are powerful in their effect, should be used with care and judgment, and with reference to the constitution and state of health of the patient; their indiscriminate and injudicious employment, like that of other potent agents, would lead to disastrous results.

This discovery of Dr. Wells has relieved thousands of sufferers, and may be considered as the great improvement of the age, viewed in connection with surgical science.

His active mind and inventive talent promised for him a useful and successful career, which, however, was suddenly terminated by his death, which occurred in New York, in the year 1848.

## THE WOLF.

**T**HE essential characteristics of the common wolf may be thus described:—the tail straight; the hide of a greyish yellow, with a black oblique stripe on the forelegs of those which are full grown, and the eyes oblique. The ancients had an opinion that the neck of the wolf was all one solid bone; but we need not say that this is one of the many opinions by which their ignorance on points of very common knowledge is demonstrated. The average height of the wolf is about two feet six inches before, and two feet four inches behind; and the length of the body, from the tip of the muzzle to the beginning of the tail, three feet eight inches. The cubs of the wolf are born with the eyes shut; the female goes with young sixty-three days; in these respects exactly resembling the dog. The average duration of their life is from fifteen to twenty years.

The great resemblance between the wolf and the dog has been frequently remarked; and some naturalists consider them of the same species. The polar voyagers state, that they had often much difficulty to distinguish the dogs of the Esquimaux from the wolves; and yet, notwithstanding this external resemblance, there is a very essential difference in their characters, and the dog and the wolf are, in all circumstances, the natural foes of each other. Captain Parry, in the Journal of his Second Voyage, says, “A flock of thirteen wolves, the first yet seen, crossed the ice in the bay from the direction of the huts, and passed near the ships. They so much resemble the Esquimaux dogs, that, had it not been for some doubts among



the officers who had seen them, whether they were so or not, and the consequent fear of doing these poor people an irreparable injury, we might have killed most of them the same evening, for they came boldly to look for food within a few yards of the Fury, and remained there for some time." Again, he says in his Journal, a few days after, "These animals were so hungry and fearless as to take away some of the Esquimaux dogs in a snow house near the Hecla's stern, though the men were at the time within a few yards of them." These dogs set up a fearful howl at the approach of a wolf; and, in speaking of the resemblance between the two it should be mentioned that wolves have not the bark of a dog, but only a howl; and, as the Esquimaux dog also does not bark, this, and the other circumstances of close resemblance, have led to the conclusion that this animal is no other than a domesticated wolf.

The following passage in "Sir A. de Capel Broke's Travels," while it illustrates the enmity of the wolf to the dog, seems to show that the latter may be himself deceived by the resemblance to his own species. "I observed on setting out from Sormjole, the last post, that the peasant who drove my sledge was armed with a cutlass; and on inquiring the reason, was told that, the day preceding, while he was passing in his sledge the part of the forest we were then in, he had encountered a wolf, which was so daring that it actually sprung over the hinder part of the sledge he was driving, and attempted to carry off a small dog which was sitting behind him. During my journey from Tornea to Stockholm, I heard every where of the ravages committed by wolves, not upon the human species or the cattle, but chiefly upon the peasant's dogs, considerable numbers of which had been devoured. I was told that these were the favorite prey of this animal; and that, in order to seize upon them with the greater ease, it puts itself into a crouching posture, and begins to play several antic tricks to attract the attention of the poor dog, which, caught by these seeming demonstrations of friendship, and fancying it to be one of his own species, from the similarity, advances towards it to join in the gambols, and is carried off by its treacherous enemy. Several peasants that I conversed with mentioned having been eye witnesses of this circumstance." The animosity of the dog to the wolf does not seem inferior to that of the wolf to the dog. Associated in packs, and encouraged by men, dogs will chase the wolf with the most daring ardor, regardless of his greater physical strength. Conflicts of this nature were not uncommon in parts of Europe during the middle ages.

Wolves are cruel and cowardly animals, with a peculiar sinister expression of countenance. They fly from man except when impelled by extreme hunger, when they prowl by night in great droves through villages, and destroy any persons they meet. It is said of them, as of several other beasts of prey, that when they have once obtained the taste of human blood, they give it the preference to any other. Very fearful accounts are on record of the ravages committed by wolves, when in hard weather they associate in immense flocks. So lately as 1760 such terror is said to have been excited in France by the ravages of wolves, that public prayers were offered for their destruction. The following statement from Captain Franklin shows the extreme cunning of the wolves in the pursuit of a creature of superior speed: "We passed the remains of two red-deer, lying at the bases of perpendicular cliffs, from the summits of which they had probably

WOLF HUNT.





been forced by wolves. These voracious animals, which are inferior in speed to the moose or red-deer, are said frequently to have recourse to this expedient, in places where extensive plains are bounded by precipitous cliffs. While the deer are quietly grazing, the wolves assemble in great numbers; and, forming a crescent, creep slowly towards the herd, so as not to alarm them much at first; but when they perceive that they have fairly hemmed in the unsuspecting creatures, and cut off their retreat across the plain, they move more quickly, and with hideous yells terrify their prey, and urge them to flight by the only open way, which is towards the precipice; appearing to know that, when the herd is once at full speed, it is easily driven over the cliff—the rearmost urging on those that are before. The wolves then descend at their leisure and feast on the mangled carcasses.

The gentleness of wolves in confinement seldom continues after they are full grown; they generally appear to acquire a fear instead of a love of man, which manifests itself in a morose and vindictive impatience. The cowardly ferocity of their natures is with difficulty restrained by discipline: they are not to be trusted. And yet there are instances of wolves having been domesticated to such an extent as to exhibit the greatest attachment to man—as great as can be shown by a dog. M. F. Cuvier gives a very interesting account of a tame wolf which had all the obedience towards and affection for his master, which the most sagacious and gentle of domestic dogs could possibly evince. He was brought up in the same manner as a puppy, and continued with his original owner till he was full grown. He was then presented to the Menagerie at Paris. For many weeks he was quite disconsolate at the separation from his master, who had been obliged to travel; he would scarcely take any food, and was indifferent to his keepers. At length he became attached to those about him, and he seemed to have forgotten his old affections. His master returned after an absence of eighteen months: the wolf heard his voice amidst the crowd in the gardens of the menagerie, and, being set at liberty, displayed the most violent joy. Again was he separated from his friend; and again was his grief as extreme as on the first occasion. After three years' absence, his master once more returned. It was evening, and the wolf's den was shut up from any external observation; yet the instant the man's voice was heard, the faithful animal set up the most anxious cries; and the door of his cage being opened, he rushed towards his friend,—leaped upon his shoulders,—licked his face,—and threatened to bite his keepers when they attempted to separate them. When the man left him, he fell sick, and refused all food; and from the time of his recovery which was long very doubtful, it was always dangerous for a stranger to approach him. He appeared as if he scorned any new friendships.

The wolf still continues to infest the northern regions of Europe, and those countries where dense forests are not yet cleared. It was extirpated much earlier in England than in any other country of Europe. Ancient chronicles state that, in the tenth century, King Edgar attempted to extirpate these animals in England by commuting the punishments for certain crimes into the acceptance of a certain number of wolves' tongues from each criminal; and, in Wales, by converting the tax of gold and silver into an annual tribute of 300 wolves' heads. In after times their destruction was promoted by certain rewards, and some lands were held on condition of destroying the wolves which infested the parts of the kingdom in which they were situated.

## ARTESIAN WELLS.

**A**RTESIAN WELLS are formed by perforating the earth by a set of instruments called "boring rods," until a subterranean body of water be reached whose sources are higher than the spot where this operation takes place. The effort which water makes to reach its own level in this instance causes it to ascend above the surface; and thus an abundant supply of this necessary element may be obtained in districts which otherwise might be without so indispensable a blessing. The Romans often went to an incredible expense in obtaining a proper supply of water; and the remains which still exist of their aqueducts are amongst the noblest monuments of their genius and enterprise. Works of this description, however, could not be constructed without an immense expenditure of labor and capital; and it is clear that an application of the principles of hydraulics and geological science would have been a much more simple and economical mode of proceeding. The Turks have availed themselves of the simple fact of the tendency of water to find its level in executing works as efficacious as the Roman aqueducts, but a thousand times less expensive. Their *Souterazi* are water-courses of brick-work, carried from a reservoir on some eminence down one hill, along the surface of a valley, and up the opposite hill.

It is easy to understand the cause which occasions the water of Artesian wells to ascend to the surface; and the following explanation may serve to show the circumstances under which this principle is usually brought into action. If the rain which falls, or the snow which is melted, on opposite ranges of mountains, filtrates through porous strata, or finds its way through apertures or fissures of stone, situated between strata either quite or almost impervious to water, and running below the surface of the valley, it makes for itself a channel, the form of which we will suppose to be an elongated curve. If any part of this valley be bored until this pipe or water-course be reached by the boring-rod, the water will spring up, under the impulsion of the law of hydraulics to which we have alluded, and a natural fountain will by this means be created. This result will not be affected by the extent of the valley, which may be a mile in width or a dozen miles. The force with which the water ascends will of course be regulated by the position chosen for the operation. It will be the greatest at that point which is situated at the lowest level, and will diminish as the source is approached from whence the supply is derived. The small springs which are met with in sinking a well are regulated by the same laws as Artesian fountains, but their sources are not sufficiently copious to enable them to reach the surface.

The question as to whence Artesian wells derive their supplies is one of the most interesting connected with the subject. The vapors of the atmosphere form one of their sources. A few hours after heavy rains, the miners of Cornwall observe a considerable augmentation in the water contained in some of their deepest pits. The fountain of Nîmes, in France,



throws out, when lowest, about 280 gallons per minute; but if a heavy rain falls in the north-west, although at a distance of seven or eight miles, its volume is increased to upwards of 2,000 gallons. The temperature, however, is scarcely changed by this great additional quantity; thus proving that it passes with great rapidity by channels situated very deeply below the surface.

The fountain of Vacluse, likewise in the south of France, if it received all the rain which fell during the whole year, on an extent of thirty square leagues, would not obtain a supply adequate to the yearly issue which it pours forth. When it rises from its subterranean bed, it in reality forms a river; and the volume of its waters when at its lowest is estimated at 480 square yards per minute, which at times is swelled to 1,494 square yards. Its mean volume is 962 square yards. This fountain, it is clear, must obtain its waters from some more abundant source than the percolation of rain-water through the pores and fissures of the earth. Its reservoirs, also, must be capable of containing a great mass of fluid, and the channels by which it flows must be large enough to contain a subterranean river.

These reservoirs and these channels are created by fractures in great areas of stratified rock, occasioned by the action of a mighty power, which, at some period, has broken them in various directions. In some cases, these cavities actually withdraw from the surface considerable rivers. The Guadiana loses itself in a flat country, in the midst of a vast prairie; and when a Spaniard hears an Englishman or a Frenchman speaking of the bridges of their respective countries, he will tell them that there is one in Estremadura on which 100,000 cattle can graze. The Meuse and several other rivers in France also disappear in the same manner; some being sucked in by apertures in their bed, situated at various distances along the course of the stream. In the Austrian dominions, the river Poick pursues its course in the cavern of Adelsberg, where its waters lose themselves and reappear several times. This cavern has been penetrated for the space of two leagues from its entrance, at which point a lake presents itself which has not yet been crossed. Humboldt mentions a cavern in South America, about 25 yards high, and 27 or 28 broad, which the traveler can penetrate for 800 yards, into whose recesses are rolled the waters of a stream above 10 yards wide. The grotto of Windborg, in Saxony, is also a remarkable instance of the extent of the earth's internal communications, being connected with the cavern of Cresfield, from which it is some leagues distant.

The Artesian fountain at Tours recently presented some phenomena proving the existence of an extensive and complete line of subterranean communication. In January, 1831, the vertical tube by which the waters of this fountain ascended was shortened a little more than four yards, on which its volume was immediately augmented a third; but this sudden increase rendered the water less clear than usual. During many hours there were brought to the surface, from a depth of above 110 yards, various substances, among which were recognized twigs of hawthorn, several inches in length, blackened by their long stay in water—stalks and roots of marshy plants—and seeds of various kinds, in a state which showed that they had been in the water since the harvest, and, consequently, that about four months had been spent in performing their hidden voyage. Shells, and other deposits which a small river, or stream of fresh water, leaves

when it overflows its banks, were also brought up during the increased action of the fountain, proving the freedom with which they circulated at depths below.

An instance is mentioned by M. Arago of one of these subterranean rivers being reached by some workmen who were boring for water close to the Barrière de Fontainebleau, at Paris. As usual, the progress of the work was slow, but, all at once, the boring rod descended nearly eight yards. When they attempted to withdraw it, it was evident that it was suspended in a body of water whose current was so strong as to occasion the instrument to oscillate in a particular direction. We have before stated that the course which water took in order to find its own level might be of any length; a fact which is clearly proved by the circumstance of the crew of an English ship becalmed in the Indian seas discovering fresh water rising from the depths of the ocean to the surface. The nearest point of land was 100 miles distant, and from hence it had come by a channel situated below the bed of the sea.

These various facts will account for the phenomena connected with Artesian fountains; but the periodical disappearance of the waters of the lake of Zirknitz, in Carniola, illustrates one of these in a manner so clear and distinct that we cannot omit noticing it. This lake is about five miles long and two and a half broad. Towards the middle of the summer, if the season be dry, its level rapidly sinks, and, in a few weeks, it becomes dry. The apertures by which the waters have retired may be then distinctly perceived; some being perpendicular, and others in a lateral direction towards the caverns of the neighboring mountains. Immediately after the waters have completely disappeared, the whole extent of the surface which they covered is put into cultivation; and, at the end of a couple of months, the peasants reap an abundant harvest of rye, millet, and grass. Towards the close of autumn, the waters return by the same natural channels by which they had disappeared. It frequently happens that a heavy shower of rain on the mountains of Zirknitz will occasion the lake to overflow its banks.

The temperature of Artesian springs is invariably higher in proportion as their depth increases. The deepest of which we have seen any statement is near Dieppe, and is about 340 yards below the surface. A well formed near Perpignan produces about 425 gallons per minute; and one at Tours ascends more than two yards above the surface, and gives 234 gallons per minute.

In France, the waters of Artesian springs are sometimes made the moving power in corn-mills. At Frontès, near Aire, the waters of ten Artesian springs put in motion the wheels of a large mill, and act besides upon the bellows and forge-hammer of a nail-manufactory. At Tours, a well of nearly 150 yards in depth pours 225 gallons per minute into the troughs of a wheel seven yards in diameter, which is the moving power of an extensive silk-manufactory. Besides their general utility in irrigations, and for the purposes of domestic comfort and salubrity, the water of Artesian springs has been specially applied with advantage for other useful objects. The workshops of M. Bruckmarm, in Würtemberg, are warmed by means of water conveyed in pipes from an Artesian spring, the temperature of whose source is considerably higher than that of the atmosphere. M. Arago also states that there are greenhouses whose temperature is kept up by means of the circulation of a constant volume of Artesian waters.



At Erfurt, they are used in the formation of artificial beds of cress, which produce £12,000 a year. In the north of France, the reservoirs in which the flax is steeped which is destined to be employed in the manufacture of lace and the finer descriptions of linen are supplied by Artesian springs, whose waters, being remarkably clear and of an equable temperature, dissolve the vegetable matter with the least injury to the most valuable properties of the plant. In fish-preserves it is often found that the fish are killed both by the severity of the winter and the excessive heats of the summer; but this effect of the inequality of the seasons has been prevented at the fish-ponds at Montmorency, near Paris, by furnishing them abundantly with Artesian waters.

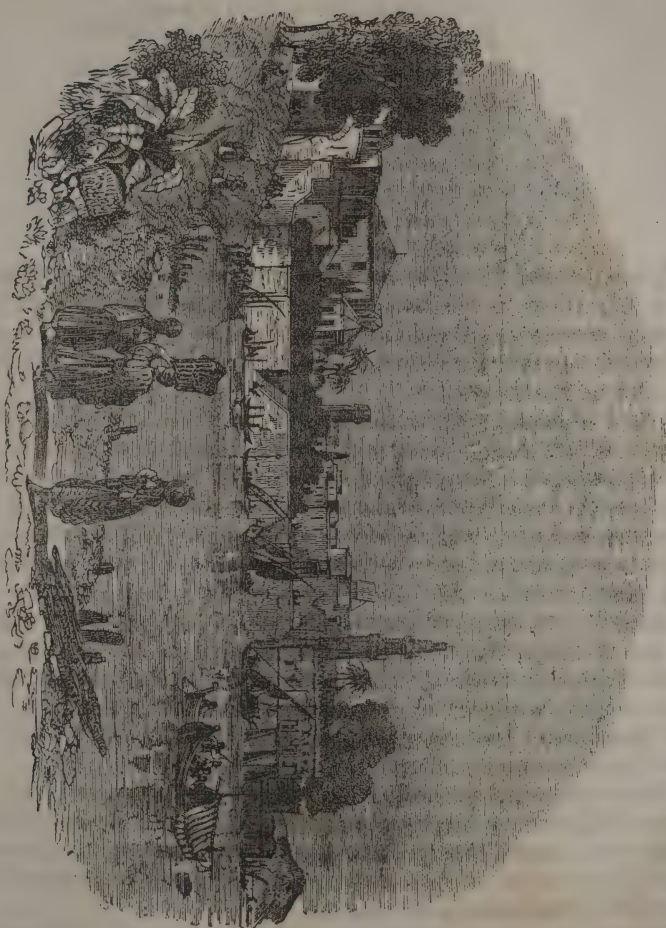
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## THE BANKS OF THE NILE.

**N**O portion of the globe is more calculated to carry the mind backward into the depths of past history, than the country along the river Nile. Here, in ages so remote as to be veiled in mist, we can see, by the faint light of history, the shadows and ghosts of kings and emperors, bearing the suggestive and portentous names of Isis, Horos, Osiris, Menes, Bochos, Biphis, and Sesostris. If we open our eyes and look around, we discover the pyramids—works of unknown hands, yet such as befit races of monarchs, half gods and half men; we see the wrecks of cities so grand, even in ruins, as to recall the age of giants; we meet with obelisks, statues, monuments, of such vast proportions as to realize the mythological dreams of the Cyclops and the Titans. And over all, are those mysterious writings—pictures—hieroglyphics—which so long defied scrutiny, but which are now beginning to speak and reveal the buried secrets of centuries.

But of all the wonders of Egypt, the sepulchral chambers are the most astonishing. There are several of these, some having the walls covered with sacred paintings, and others with objects and scenes taken from the manners, customs and history of the country. Madden, in his travels, thus describes his entrance into one of these mysterious chambers:

“Considerably below the surface of the adjoining buildings, the guide pointed out to me a chink in an old wall, which he told me I should creep through on my hands and feet; the aperture was not two feet and a half high, and scarcely three feet and a half broad. My companion had the courage to enter first, thrusting in a lamp before him. I followed, and after me the son of the old man crept also. The passage was so narrow that my mouth and nose were sometimes buried in the dust, and I was nearly suffocated. After proceeding about ten yards, in utter darkness, the heat became excessive, breathing was laborious, the perspiration poured down my face, and I would have given the world to have got out; but my companion, whose person I could not distinguish, though his voice was



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audible, called out to me to crawl a few feet further, and that I should find plenty of space. I joined him at length, and had the inexpressible satisfaction of standing once more on my feet. We found ourselves in a splendid apartment of great magnitude, adorned with sacred paintings and hieroglyphics."

An English poet, who visited the sepulchral chambers of Egypt, thus describes the paintings.

"————— in the range  
Of these deep-caverned sepulchres are found,  
The wildest images—unheard of, strange,  
Striking, uncouth, odd, picturesque, profound—  
That ever puzzled antiquarian's brain,  
Prisoners of different nations, bound and slain,  
Genii with heads of birds, hawks, ibis, drakes,  
Of lions, foxes, cats, fish, frog, and snakes,  
Bulls, rams, and monkeys, hippopotami,  
With knife in paw, suspended from the sky—  
Vast scarabei, globes by hands upheld,  
From chaos springing, 'mid an endless field  
Of forms grotesque, the sphynx, the crocodile,  
And other reptiles, from the slime of Nile."

It would seem that similar representations of sacred objects are alluded to in the Bible, and we may infer that they were objects of idolatrous worship among the Egyptians. From these it is probable the Israelites derived the practice, rebuked in the book of Ezekiel, ch. viii. 7—12, where we read as follows—

"And he brought me to the door of the court, and when I looked, behold a hole in the wall. Then said he unto me, Son of man, dig now in the wall; and when I had digged in the wall, behold a door. And he said unto me, Go in, and behold the wicked abominations that they do here. So I went in and saw; and behold every form of creeping things, and abominable beasts, and all the idols of the house of Israel, portrayed upon the wall round about. And there stood before them seventy men of the ancients of the house of Israel, and in the midst of them stood Jaazaniah the son of Shaphan, with every man his censer in his hand; and a thick cloud of incense went up. Then said he unto me, Son of man, hast thou seen what the ancients of the house of Israel do in the dark, every man in the chambers of his imagery? for they say, The Lord seeth us not; the Lord hath forsaken the earth."

Beside these objects which we have mentioned, travelers tell us of the ruins of cities along the borders of the Nile, which strike the beholder with amazement, on account of their magnitude. The ruins of a single temple, called Karnak, in Upper Egypt, are three miles in circuit. They are described by a traveler, as follows:

"Most points of view present only the image of a general overthrow, rendering it difficult to distinguish Karnak as a series of regular edifices. Across these vast ruins, appear only fragments of architecture; trunks of broken columns; mutilated colossal statues; obelisks—some fallen and some majestically erect; immense halls, whose roofs are supported by parts of columns, portals and pillars, surpassing in magnitude all similar structures. From the west, this chaos assumes an orderly appearance; and the almost endless series of portals, gates, and halls, appear ranged in regular succession, and harmonizing with each other. When the plan is thoroughly understood, its regularity appears wonderful; and the highest admiration

is excited by the arrangement and symmetry of all the parts of this vast edifice."

These ruins are on the eastern side of the Nile, and near by are those of the temple of Luxor, which, though hardly equal to Karnak in magnitude, even surpass it in beauty of design and execution.

On the western side of the Nile, and at no great distance, are the ruins of the ancient city of Thebes, said to have had a hundred gates, in its days of prosperity—some thousands of years ago.

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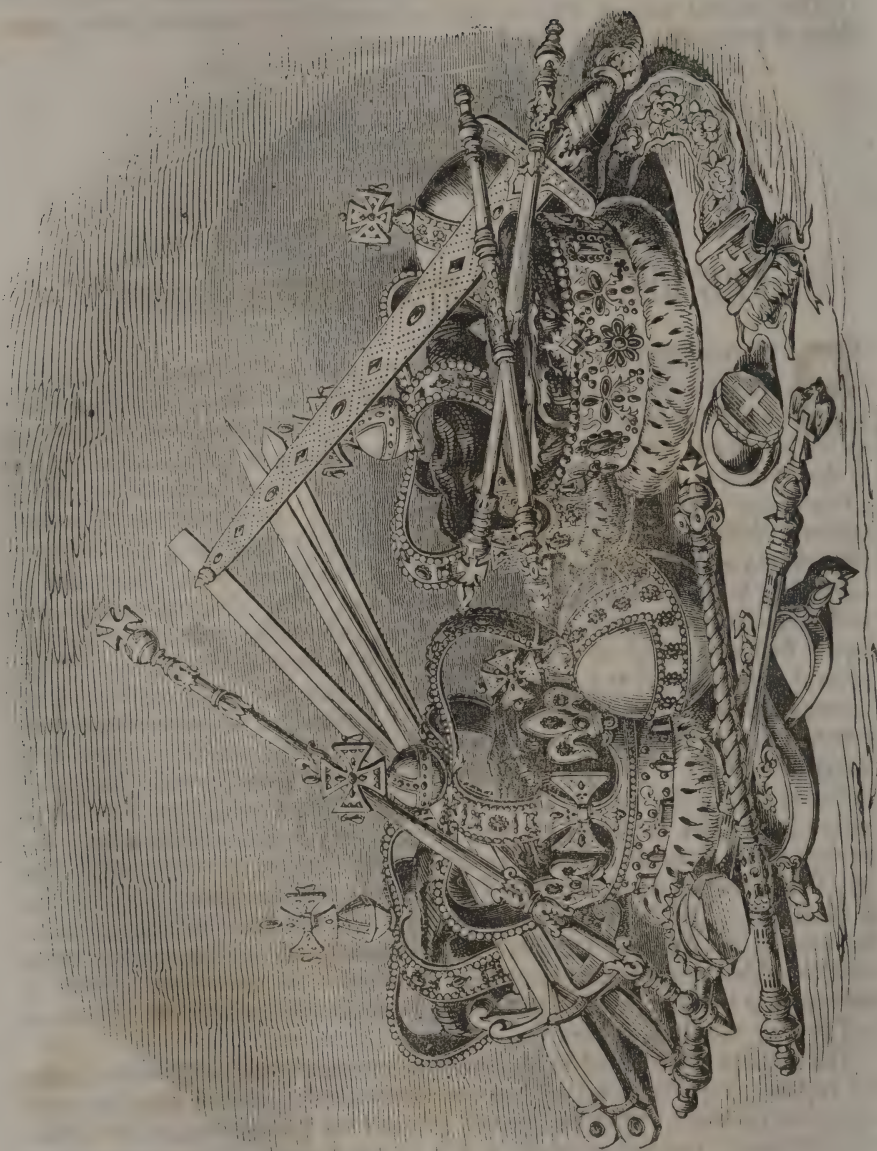
## THE REGALIA OF THE BRITISH CROWN.

**D**EPOSITED in a room recently appropriated to that purpose, the regalia presents a magnificent spectacle. Here is the ancient imperial crown of Charles II., Prince of Wales' crown, the ancient queen's crown, but the most magnificent display of England's regalia is the crown of her present majesty. The cap is of purple velvet, with silver hoops covered with diamonds; on the top of these hoops is a ball covered with smaller diamonds, with a cross of brilliants, containing a remarkable central sapphire. On the front is a heart-shaped ruby, said to have been worn by Edward the black prince. This diamond weighs one and three-fourths pounds, and is valued at one million pounds. The baptismal font with stand of silver gilt, which was used at the baptism of her present majesty, and the prince of Wales, is four feet high, and cost forty thousand pounds (two hundred thousand dollars.) A large silver wine fountain is also exhibited, weighing ninety-six pounds, and which cost fifty thousand dollars. There are various other costly paraphernalia belonging to the regalia, such as St. Edward's staff, of pure gold, four feet seven inches in length; the royal sceptre, of gold, two feet nine inches long, the queen's ivory sceptre, mounted in gold, with a dove of white onyx; the orb, five inches in diameter, edged with pearls, and surmounted with roses of diamonds. The sovereign holds this orb in the left hand at the coronation, the swords of Justice, temporal and ecclesiastical, and numerous other articles which we cannot mention. The value of the whole regalia is estimated at three millions of pounds, equal to fourteen millions five hundred and twenty thousand dollars.

The regalia represented in the group in our engraving, exhibits not only the regalia, properly so called, but also those which are used when a queen consort is crowned. The reader will please bear in recollection the difference between a queen regnant, and a queen consort. A queen regnant occupies the kingly office, as of right. She is *the* king, and is called queen as being a female. But a queen consort is called queen, as being the wife of the king, and her only right (if right it can be called) to be crowned, lies in the will and pleasure of her husband.

The regalia, properly so called, are represented grouped on the left side





REGALIA OF BRITISH CROWN.

of the engraving. The two crowns are the crown of state and the imperial crown. The imperial crown is also called St. Edward's crown, as having been made for the coronation of Charles II. to supply the place of the old crown (which bore the name of Edward the confessor), destroyed, along with the other ancient regalia, by order of parliament. The imperial crown is "the crown royal, which is set upon the king's head;" the crown of state is for the accommodation of the king, to be worn in procession. The crown of state was made for the coronation of George IV., the old one having been broken up. A new crown of state has been made for the present queen, which contains all the jewels of the former crown, with many additional ones.

Four swords are used at a coronation. The sword of state, sheathed in its ornamented scabbard, and the three swords of mercy and of justice. The sword of mercy is Curtana, or the pointless sword; the sword of spiritual justice is obtusely pointed; but the sword of justice of the temporality is acutely pointed. St. Edward's staff is represented as crossing the imperial crown; it is a large golden rod, with a mound and cross at the top, and is carried before the king in the procession to the coronation. The sceptre and the virge, or rod, are represented crossed in the foreground of the engraving. The sceptre, surmounted by a mound and cross, is placed in the king's right hand; and the virge, or rod, surmounted by a cross and dove, is placed in the left hand. The globe or orb, surmounted by a cross, is supposed to have been used originally as a type or emblem of sovereignty. The other portions of the regalia are the spurs, of fine gold, curiously wrought, the ring and the armil, or armilla, which is used in the ceremony of investiture.

That portion of the regalia which is used when a queen consort is crowned, consists of a crown of state, a circlet of gold, an orb, similar to the king's sceptres, and a ring. They are grouped on the right side of the engraving, the sword of state crossing them.

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## CUBA.

**P**REVIOUS to the eighteenth century, the history of Cuba is principally occupied with accounts of the settlements commenced by the first governor, Diego Velasquez. Its advance was extremely slow, and having exhausted the native Indian population—who were a docile and gentle race—the island was only held by Spain as a convenient military and naval station on the way to the mines of Mexico. Notwithstanding this, we notice in the laws and municipal rights of Cuba the same independent and liberal spirit which prevailed in all the settlements of that nation, among the Moors or elsewhere, so far as the Spanish settlers or their descendants were concerned. Even in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries public assemblies of citizens were held to elect the members of the corporations; free and bold charges were made and sustained against governors; and no taxation was permitted which was not sustained by these bodies.



In 1812 the constitution was proclaimed in Spain; the whole people of the colonies were assimilated to the inhabitants of the mother country with respect to representation; and Cuba sent her representatives to the Spanish Chamber of Deputies. In 1818 Señor Arango, the deputy from Havana, obtained a royal ordinance for the abolition of restrictions on Cuban commerce. From this period we may date the prosperity of the island. Before, she had been a burden to the home treasury. Now she began to remit large sums annually to the government; an army of 25,000 men, sent from Spain in a miserable plight, was maintained by her, and in a few years was entirely equipped, clothed and disciplined in the best manner, without expense to the mother country. Indeed, since 1830, in every embarrassment of her government, Spain has been supplied with means from the treasury of Cuba, and it has been a reserved fund for her every pressing emergency. When the civil list failed Queen Christina, Cuba furnished resources for defraying the profuse expenditure of the palace. The contributions wrung from the island, formed no small portion of the riches bequeathed by Ferdinand VII. to his rapacious widow and to his reputed daughters. From Cuba also were derived the means of setting on foot the luckless expedition of Barrados for the reconquest of Mexico; and from 1832 to 1841, it had exchanged thirty-six millions of dollars against an equal amount of government paper. At length, so much importance was attached to the revenues of this island, that they served as ample guarantees for loans, foreign and domestic. The wealth, the beauty, the fertility of Cuba proved her ruin. By degrees, she came to be regarded only as a machine for raising money; and to carry out the purposes of the home administration to the fullest extent, it was necessary to destroy the privileges and the liberties which the Cubans had heretofore enjoyed.

Although the standard of Independence was raised across the Gulf of Mexico, and Cuba was invited to join in its defence, and although Mexico and Columbia prepared an expedition which should give liberty to the island, the inhabitants shut their eyes to the alluring prospects, and maintained an unwavering loyalty. They were repaid for their fidelity, as tyrants are apt to reward such conduct. On the plea that disturbances in South America might require the exercise of arbitrary power, by the governor of Cuba, in 1825, a royal order was issued, and it is still in full force, addressed to the Captain General, which after the usual preamble, proceeds as follows: "The king, our master, in order to keep in quietude his faithful inhabitants, confine within the proper limits such as would deviate from the path of honor, and punish such as, forgetting their duties, would dare commit excesses in opposition to our wise laws; and being desirous of preventing the embarrassments which, under extraordinary circumstances, might arise from a division in the command, and from the complicated authority and powers of the different officers of government, for the important end of maintaining in that island his sovereign authority, and the public quiet; it has pleased his majesty, in conformity with the advice of his council of ministers, to authorize your excellency, fully investing you with the whole extent of powers which, by the royal ordinances, are granted to the Governors of besieged towns. In consequence thereof, his majesty most amply and unrestrictedly authorizes your excellency not only to remove from that island such persons, holding offices from the government or not, whatever their occupation, rank, class, or situation in life may be, whose

residence there you may believe prejudicial, or whose public or private conduct may appear suspicious to you, but also to suspend the execution of whatever royal orders or general decrees in all the different branches of the administration, or in any part of them, as your excellency may think conducive to the royal service."

The sad effects of this royal order were not immediately felt. The island was at that time governed by General Vives, whose policy, during the whole of a long administration, was mild and conciliating; and he was so far from putting into execution the terrible authority with which he was endowed, as to act on his wise conviction, that it would be equally disadvantageous to Cuba and to Spain. This was, however, merely the good fortune of the inhabitants; the fearful decree stood, in all its terrors, only waiting the presence of a despot, to carry it out in its fullest force. Such an one was found in the person of Don Miguel Tacón, who, two years after the retirement of Vives, was appointed Captain General. This was in 1834. It should meanwhile be borne in mind, that during the several crises in Spain, from 1808 to 1837,—and they were seven in number,—we find the "always faithful island of Cuba" receiving and promptly obeying the decrees of the crown. Throughout all the disturbances, in every revolution or change of ministry, Cuba remained the same, always loyal, obedient, uncomplaining.

From the accession of Tacón may be dated a series of injuries, cruelties, and oppressions, against the unfortunate island, unparalleled in the history of civilized communities. This man's administration has been frequently lauded by strangers, who regarded him in the light of a reformer of the social disorders which prevailed, at that time, to a frightful extent. Indeed, his coming was hailed with joy by the mass of the proprietors, while every well-disposed person beheld with gratification his energies directed to prevent and punish robbery and assassination; to the destruction of dogs in the streets; the cleansing and macadamizing of the principal thoroughfares; the erection of markets, a prison, a theatre, &c. But if Tacón exercised a strong and arbitrary will in carrying out these projects, he soon displayed the same qualities in oppressing persons of every class. The fact is, he was a tyrant. He possessed a jealous nature, was short-sighted and narrow-minded, and had an uncommon stubbornness of character. Never satiated with power, he found in the royal order of 1825, ample authority for every species of despotism. He knew that all they required of him at home was to extort as much money as possible from the inhabitants of the island; for the rest, no questions would be asked. It was through his influence that the wealthy portion of the community was divested of the privileges conferred on them by the *estatuto*. He even deprived the old municipalities of Havana of the power of naming the under-commissaries of police. To sustain his absolute government by trampling on every institution, was a necessary consequence of his first violent and unjustifiable act. In order to obtain credit in the management of the police, he displayed a despotic and even brutal activity in the mode of exacting, from the inferior officers, distributed in the several wards of the city, under personal responsibility, the apprehension and summary prosecution of criminals. They soon found that there would be no complaint, provided they acted vigorously in bringing up prisoners. So far from presuming their innocence, or requiring proof of their crimes, those who were once arrested were put to the negative and difficult task of



proving their innocence. The more unwarrantable the acts of his subalterns the more acceptable to him, since they, in his opinion, but displayed the energy of his authority. They trembled in his presence, and left it to persecute, to invent accusations, to imprison, and to spread terror and desolation among the families of the island. It is but just to add, that banditti, and thieves, and professed gamblers were terrified by his sweeping scythe, and became much more modest than they had been during the brief administration of the weak and infirm General Ricafort, his predecessor. The timid and short-sighted merchant or planter, who perceived this reform, did not comprehend or appreciate the illegality of the system, nor its pernicious effects on the future destinies of the country, and was the first to justify the man who interposed himself between the subject and the crown, not permitting any petitions contrary to his pleasure.

The consequence of all this was a regular system of espionage. The prisoners were distributed in the castles, because the jails were insufficient to contain them. In the dungeons were lodged nearly six hundred persons, the causes of whose detention nobody knew—a fact authentically proved by a casual circumstance. In about eighteen months of his administration Tacon caused one hundred and ninety persons to be deported. Besides these, seven hundred and twenty were sent away under sentence of banishment for life, while in the *Gallera*, vast multitudes of prisoners, of all grades, the innocent and the guilty, were huddled together in one long narrow hall. The misery of this awful place cannot be exaggerated. Señor Tanco styles it, “un infierno de inmoralidad.” Tacon’s only object in building it was to rid the government house of the *fumes* of pestilence, which were engendered in the dungeons of the palace in which he lived. Not content with these acts of horrible cruelty, he destroyed at a single blow all freedom of discussion in the municipal body, usurped its powers, and frightened away such members as he thought would not bow to his will. During the government of Tacon the act of exclusion was passed at Madrid, which shut out the unfortunate island from all representation in the Cortes. This was in February, 1837, and the act, it should be borne in mind, was in direct violation of the new constitution, which had just been adopted, the 28th article of which stated that the basis was the same for national representation in both hemispheres, while by the 29th article, the basis in Cuba was the population of the island, composed of persons who, in both lines, were of Spanish origin. The rejection of the Cuban deputies at Madrid completed this rapid enslavement. The Cubans were henceforth cut off from even the possibility of relief. From the same period also may be dated a new series of wrongs, injuries and oppressions against her unfortunate inhabitants. The Spanish Cortes, jealous of the extensive trade of Cuba with the United States, had already imposed a duty of nearly ten dollars a barrel on flour imported from them into Cuba. This was now raised to about ten dollars and three-quarters, thus placing the enormous tax of 150 per cent. on the first necessary of life. When it is considered that all articles of primary necessity come from abroad, and that they are all enormously taxed, this one item of her tariff will be readily appreciated, both in itself and in its relations. At the same time the tonnage dues of Cuban vessels were placed nearly on the same footing with those of foreign vessels. This was of course ruinous to her merchant marine, and was especially aggravating, since the island

offered vast advantages in her fine forests for shipping, and up to 1798 had furnished timber for the construction, in the Arsenal at Havana, of one hundred and twenty-five vessels—fifty-three of which were frigates and six three-deckers. This line of policy once adopted, it was carried out with relentless vigor. The home government now considered, not how large a revenue the island yielded, but how it was possible to get more from it. Ingenuity was racked to devise new objects and measures of taxation. The list of the different Cuban taxes is a curiosity of itself. The prime ministers of other monarchies might learn a lesson from it, were it not that there is no government which would dare avail itself of such an enormous system of oppression.

The pursuit of robbery and plunder—it can be called by no milder name—has been reduced to a complete system. Each official reserves to himself a large sum from the amount wrung from the inhabitants, so that while the revenue of the island, from the various sources of taxation, must be at least twenty-five millions of dollars, (it is ordinarily incorrectly stated at about twelve millions), only about three millions find their way to the Spanish treasury. In the mean time the slave trade is carried on as extensively as ever, and with greater cruelty. Spain *will not* abolish it. She is determined, in spite of treaties, to pour annually into Cuba, a fierce black population which shall intimidate the Creoles from any attempt at freedom. This, and this only, is the secret of the unflinching prosecution of the slave-trade in the face of treaties, and contrary to the wishes of the Creole population. It has been said that the continuance of the traffic is owing to the enormous bribes, to the Captain General, of thirty-two dollars for each slave, and that this is the only reason it is not abolished. It is ridiculous even to suppose that Spain, if she had no other object but to enrich an unscrupulous official, would run the risk of continually breaking her treaty with so powerful a nation as England, always on the alert, if possible to enforce it.

But that no one may have a doubt of the ultimate object of Spain in constantly flooding Cuba with Africans, we translate the following from the *Heraldo* of Madrid: “It is well for all to know, whether native or foreign, that the island of Cuba, can only be Spanish or African. When the day comes when the Spaniards should be found to abandon her, they will do so by bequeathing their sway to the blacks, just as a commander abandons a battery to the enemy, after defending it as long as possible, but taking care, above everything, to spike the cannon; that the adversary shall not make use of them.” While the Spanish organ in New York, the *Cronica*, holds the following language:—“If in consequence of the war, signs should be manifested that the hostile elements, now subdued by the interests of our common race, were to be let loose, Spain would arm her Africans, and would guide them as auxiliaries as long as it were in her power to do so, and would grant them full liberty as a reward for their aid, when she should perceive that these means were not sufficiently powerful to enable her longer to resist!”

It will be seen that Spain has not only deprived Cuba of all means of redress, but also that she openly avows a determination to hold her in chains by the most terrible of all menaces, that of encouraging a servile insurrection.

But to proceed: The press, under the most infamous and servile censor-



ship, is a weapon wielded only against her rights. A petition, signed by more than two, is condemned as a seditious act. The corporations, as we have stated, have no longer a representative character, and they are under the immediate control of the Captain General, who appoints their members, and dictates at will their resolutions. The Board of Improvement has become a mere arm of the government, to sanction despotic acts, to support additional taxes, and to introduce mixed races into the population. All who have dared to oppose these measures are forced into obscurity, or persecuted, or expatriated.

The Creoles are excluded from the army, the judiciary, the treasury, and the customs, and from all influential or lucrative positions; private speculations and monopolies are favored and established with a view of taking from them their means of wealth; the poor in the country are compelled to serve in the precarious police, which is thus sustained; and fines are imposed, and forced aid for the repairing of the roads, according to the will of the officer in command, or the pliancy of the individual.

The twenty-five millions of taxes, after deducting what is embezzled by the officials, are employed in supporting an army of twenty thousand men, and likewise the entire navy of Spain, in the paying of a vast number of officers residing either on the island or at home; and in remittances for general purposes. In spite of the enormous tithe collected, it is only by subscriptions that the inhabitants can secure to themselves temples for their worship, or cemeteries for their dead; and for a baptism, or a burial, or to obtain any of the consolations of religion, the care of which is indirectly under the all-absorbing military authority, a large additional sum must be paid. The military government has taken from the other political and administrative branches the control of education, in order to restrict, to limit, and to embarrass it. The tributary system has drained many sources of wealth. The flour monopoly has put down the cultivation of coffee; and the grazing of cattle has become a ruinous business from the tax on slaughtered animals.

Every inhabitant is compelled to ask for a license, and pay for the same, when he wants to go from the place of his residence. No citizen, however peaceful and respectable he may be, is allowed to walk through the city after ten o'clock in the evening, unless he carries with him a lantern, and obtains leave successively of all the watchmen on his way, the infraction of which law is punished with immediate arrest, and a fine of eight dollars. He is not permitted to lodge any person in his house for a single night, be the same either native or foreigner, his friend or a member of his family, without giving information of the fact, under the penalty of a like punishment. He cannot remove his residence from one house to another, without giving notice, previously, of his intention, to the authorities, under the penalty of a heavy fine. An order has been made which in effect prohibits parents from sending their children to the United States for purposes of education, and such as wish to do so are driven to the expedient of proving or feigning ill health in their children, in order to obtain passports for them.

## THE PLANET-WATCHERS OF GREENWICH.

HERE is a morsel of Greenwich Park, which has, for nearly two centuries, been held sacred from intrusion. It is the portion inclosed by the walls of the Observatory. Certainly a hundred thousand visitors must ramble over the surrounding lawns, and look with curious eye upon the towers and outer boundaries of that little citadel of science, for one who finds admission to the interior of the building. Its brick towers, with flanking turrets and picturesque roofs, perched on the side of the gravelly hill, and sheltered round about by groups of fine old trees, are as well known as Greenwich Hospital itself. But what work goes on inside its carefully preserved boundary, and under those movable, black-domed roofs, is a popular mystery. Many a holiday-maker's wonder has been excited by the fall, at one o'clock, of the huge black ball, high up there, by the weather vane on the topmost point of the eastern turret. He knows, or is told, if he asks a loitering pensioner, that the descent of the ball tells the time as truly as the sun; and that all the ships in the river watch it to set their chronometers by, before they sail; and that all the railway clocks, and all the railway trains over the kingdom are arranged punctually by its indications. But how the heavens are watched to secure this punctual definition of the flight of time, and what other curious labors are going on inside of the observatory, is a sealed book. The public have always been, of necessity, excluded from the Observatory walls, for the place is devoted to the prosecution of a science whose operations are inconsistent with the bustle, the interruptions, the talk, and the anxieties of popular curiosity and examination.

But when public information and instruction are the objects, the doors are widely opened, and the press and its *attachés* find a way into this, as into many other sacred and forbidden spots. Only last week one of "our own contributors" was seen in a carriage on the Greenwich railway, poring over the paper in the last *Edinburgh Review* that describes this national astronomical establishment, and was known afterward to have climbed the Observatory hill, and to have rung and gained admission at the little, black, mysterious gate in the Observatory wall. Let us see what is told in his report of what he saw within that sacred portal.

In the park on a fine day all seems life and gayety—once within the Observatory boundary, the first feeling is that of isolation. There is a curious stillness about the place, and the footstep of the old pensioner, who closes the gate upon a visitor, echoes again on the pavement as he goes away to wake up from his astronomical or meteorological trance one of the officers of this sanctum. Soon, under the guidance of the good genius so invoked, the secrets of the place begin to reveal themselves.

The part of the Observatory so conspicuous from without is the portion least used within. When it was designed by Christopher Wren, the general belief was that such buildings should be lofty, that the observer might be raised toward the heavenly bodies whose motions he was to watch.



More modern science has taught its disciples better; and in Greenwich, which is an eminently practical Observatory, the working part of the building is found crouching behind the loftier towers. These are now occupied as subsidiary to the modern practical building. The ground floor is used as a residence by the chief astronomer; above is the large hall originally built to contain huge movable telescopes and quadrants—such as are not now employed. Nowadays, this hall occasionally becomes a sort of scientific counting-house—irreverent but descriptive term—in which, from time to time, a band of scientific clerks are congregated to post up the books in which the daily business of the planets has been jotted down by the astronomers who watch those marvelous bodies. Another portion is a kind of museum of astronomical curiosities. Flamstead and Halley, and their immediate successors, worked in these towers, and here still rest some of the old, rude tools with which their discoveries were completed, and their reputation, and the reputation of Greenwich, were established. As time has gone on, astronomers and opticians have invented new, and more perfect, and more luxurious instruments. Greater accuracy is thus obtainable at a less expenditure of human patience and labor; and so the old tools are cast aside. One of them belonged to Halley, and was put up by him a hundred and thirty years ago; another is an old brazen quadrant, with which many valuable observations were made in by-gone times; and another, an old iron quadrant, still fixed in the stone pier to which it was first attached. Some of the huge telescopes that once found place in this old Observatory, have been sent away. One went to the Cape of Good Hope, and has been useful there. Another of the unsatisfactory, and now unused instruments, had a tube twenty-five feet long, whose cool and dark interior was so pleasant to the spiders that, do what they would, the astronomers could not altogether banish the persevering insects from it. Spin they would; and, spite of dusting and cleaning, and spider-killing, spin they did; and, at length, the savans got more instruments and less patience, and the spiders were left in quiet possession. This has been pleasantly spoken of as an instance of poetical justice. It is but fair that spiders should, at times, have the best of astronomers, for astronomers rob spiders for the completion of their choicest instruments. No fabric of human construction is fine enough to strain across the eye-piece of an important telescope, and opticians preserve a particular race of spiders, that their webs may be taken for that purpose. The spider lines are strained across the best instruments at Greenwich and elsewhere; and when the spinners of these beautifully fine threads disturbed the accuracy of the tube in the western wing of the old Observatory, it was said to be but fair retaliation for the robberies the industrious insects had endured.

A narrow stair leads from the unused rooms of the old Observatory to its leaded roof, whence a magnificent view is obtained; the park, the hospital, the town of Greenwich, and the windings of the Thames, and, gazing further, London itself comes grandly into the prospect. The most inveterate astronomer could scarcely fail to turn for a moment from the wonders of the heavens to admire these glories of the earth. From the leads, two turrets are reached, where the first constantly active operations in this portion of the building are in progress.

At the present time, indeed, these turrets are the most useful portions

of the old building. In one is placed the well-known contrivance for registering, hour after hour, and day after day, the force and direction of the wind. To keep such a watch by human vigilance, and to make such a register by human labor, would be a tedious, expensive, and irksome task; and human ingenuity taxed itself to make a machine for perfecting such work. The wind turns a weathercock, and, by aid of cog-wheels, the motion is transferred to a lead pencil fixed over a sheet of paper, and thus the wind is made to write down the direction which itself is blowing. Not far distant is a piece of metal, the flat side of which is ever turned by the weathercock to meet the full force of the wind, which, blowing upon it, drives it back against a spring. To this spring is affixed a chain passing over pulleys toward another pencil, fixed above a sheet of paper, and moving faithfully, more or less, as the wind blows harder or softer. And thus the "gentle zephyr," and the fresh breeze, and the heavy gale, and, when it comes, the furious hurricane, are made to note down their character and force. The sheet of paper on which the uncertain element, the wind, is bearing witness against itself, is fixed upon a frame moved by clock-work. Steady as the progress of time, this ingenious mechanism draws the paper under the suspended pencils. Thus each minute and each hour has its written record, without human help or inspection. Once a day only, an assistant comes to put a new blank sheet in the place of that which has been covered by the moving pencils, and the latter is taken away to be bound up in a volume. This book might with truth be lettered, "The History of the Wind; written by Itself"—an Æolian autobiography.

Close by is another contrivance for registering in decimals of an inch the quantity of rain that falls. The drops are caught, and passing down a tube, a permanent mark is made by which the quantity is determined.

The eastern turret is devoted to the Time Ball and its mechanism. Far out at sea—away from all sources of information but those to be asked of the planets, his compass, his quadrant, his chronometer and his almanac, the mariner feels the value of *time* in a way which the landsman can scarcely conceive. If his chronometer is right, he may feel safe; let him have reason to doubt its accuracy, and he knows how the perils surrounding him are increased. An error of a few seconds in his time may place him in danger—an error of a few minutes may lead him to steer blindly to his certain wreck. Hence his desire when he is leaving port to have his time-pieces right to a second; and hence the expenditure of thought, and labor, and money, at the Greenwich Observatory, to afford the shipping of the great port of London, and the English navy, the exact time—true to the tenth of a second, or six hundredth of a minute—and to afford them also a book, the Nautical Almanac, containing a mass of astronomical facts, on which they may base their calculations, with full reliance as to their accuracy. Every day for the last seventeen years, at five minutes before one o'clock, the black ball five feet across and stuffed with cork, is raised halfway up its shaft above the eastern turret of the Observatory—at two-and-a-half minutes before that hour it rises to the top. Telescopes from many a point, both up and down the river, are now pointed to this dark spot above the Greenwich trees, and many an anxious mariner has his time-pieces beside him, that their indications may be made true. Watch the ball as you stand in the park. It is now just raised. You must wait two minutes and a half, and as you do so, you feel what a



minute may be. It seems a long, palpable, appreciable time, indeed. In the turret below, stands a clock telling the true time, gained by a laborious watching of the *clock-stars*; and beside the clock is a man with a practised hand upon a trigger, and a practised eye upon the face of the dial. One minute—two minutes pass. Thirty seconds more and the trigger has released the ball. As it leaves the top of the shaft, it is one o'clock to the tenth of a second. By the time it has reached the bottom it is some five seconds later.

Leaving the Ball Turret, and the old building which it surmounts, the new Observatory, where the chief work of the establishment is done, claims our notice. This attention would scarcely be given to its outward appearance, for it is a long, low building, scarcely seen beyond its own boundaries. The Greenwich Observatory is not a *show* place, but an eminently practical establishment. St. Petersburg and other cities have much more gorgeous buildings devoted to astronomical purposes, and Russia and other countries spend much more money on astronomy than England does, yet the Greenwich Tables have a world-wide reputation, and some of them are used as the groundwork for calculations in all Observatories, at home and abroad. The astronomer does not want marble halls or grand saloons for his work. Galileo used a bell-tower at Venice, and Kepler stood on the bridge at Prague to watch the stars. The men, not the buildings, do the work. No disappointment need be felt, then, to find the modern Observatory a range of unadorned buildings running east and west, with slits in the roof, and in some of the walls. Within these simple buildings are the instruments now used, displaying almost the perfection of mechanical skill in their construction and finish—beautifully adapted to the object they have to fulfill, and in perfect order. They are fixed on solid piers of masonry, deeply imbedded in the earth, to secure freedom from vibration—a quality better obtained when the foundations are on sand or gravel than when on rock.

To describe the instruments by their technical names, and to go into any particulars of the instruments they have superseded, would take space, only to do the work of a scientific treatise. Enough, therefore, to say, that there are the telescopes best adapted to the chief duty of the place, which is, watching the moon whenever she is visible; watching the *clock stars*, by which the true time is calculated more exactly than it could be from observations of the sun alone; and watching other planetary bodies as they pass the meridian. Eclipses, occultations, and other phenomena, of course, have their share of attention, and add to the burden of the observer's duties.

The staff of the Observatory includes a chief astronomer, Mr. Airy, with a salary of £800 a year; and six assistants, who are paid, £470, £290, £240, £150, £130, and £130, respectively. This does not include the Meteorological branch of the establishment, to be spoken of hereafter; and which consists of Mr. Glaisher, with £240 a year, one assistant at £120, and two additional computers. At times, when these scientific laborers have collected more observations than they are able to work out, additional help is summoned, in shape of the body of scientific clerks before spoken of; who, seated at desks, cast up the accounts of the planetary bodies, including such regular old friends as the moon and fixed stars, but not forgetting those wandering celestial existences that rush,

from time to time, over the meridian, and may be fairly called the chance customers of the astronomer.

Though the interior of the Observatory seems so still, the life of those employed there has its excitements. Looking through telescopes forms a small part only of their duty—and that duty cannot be done when the weather is unfavorable. On cloudy days the observer is idle; in bright weather he is busy; and a long continuance of clear days and nights gives him more employment than he can well complete. Summer, therefore, is his time of labor; winter his time of rest. It appears that in our climate the nights, on the whole, are clearer than the days, and evenings less cloudy than mornings. Every assistant takes his turn as an observer, and a chain of duty is kept up night and day; at other periods, the busiest portion of the twenty-four hours at the Observatory is between nine in the morning and two in the afternoon. During this time they work in silence, the task being to complete the records of the observations made, by filling in the requisite columns of figures upon printed forms, and then adding and subtracting them as the case requires. While thus engaged, the assistant who has charge of an instrument looks, from time to time, at his star-regulated clock, and when it warns him that his expected planet is nearly due, he leaves his companions, and quietly repairs to the room where the telescope is ready. The adjustment of this has previously been arranged with the greatest nicety. The shutter is moved from the slit in the roof, the astronomer sits upon an easy chair with a movable back. If the object he seeks is high in the heavens, this chair-back is lowered till its occupant almost lies down; if the star is lower, the chair-back is raised in proportion. He has his note book and metallic pencil in hand. Across the eye-piece of the telescope are stretched seven lines of spider web, dividing the field of view. If his seat requires change, the least motion arranges it to his satisfaction, for it rests upon a railway of its own. Beside him is one of the star-clocks, and as the moment approaches for the appearance of the planet, the excitement of the moment increases. "The tremble of impatience for the entrance of the star on the field of view," says an Edinburgh Reviewer, "is like that of a sportsman whose dog has just made a full point, and who awaits the rising of the game. When a star appears, the observer, in technical language, *takes a second from the clock face*; that is, he reads the second with his eye, and counts on by the ear the succeeding beats of the clock, naming the seconds mentally. As the star passes each wire of the transit, he marks down in his jotting-book with a metallic pencil the second, *and the second only*, of his observation, with such a fraction of a second as corresponds, in his judgment, to the interval of time between the passage of the star and the beat of the clock which preceded such passage."

An experienced observer will never commit an error in this mental calculation, exceeding the tenth of a second, or six hundredth of a minute. When the star has been thus watched over the seven cobweb lines (or wires,) the observer jots down the hour and minute, in addition to the second, and the task is done. Stars, not very near the sun, may be seen in broad daylight; but, at night, it is requisite to direct a ray of light from a lamp, so far to enlighten the field of the telescope as to permit the spider lines to be seen running across the brighter ground on which the expected star is to be visible.



The adjustment of the instruments is a task of great nicety. If they are out of trim only the shadow of a shade of a hair's breadth, the desired accuracy is interfered with, and they have to be readjusted. Temperature is of course an important element in their condition, and a slight sensibility may do mischief. The warmth of the observer's body, when approaching the instruments, has been known to affect their accuracy; and to avoid such sources of error, instruments have at times been cased in flannel, that the non-conducting powers of that homely fabric might screen the too sensitive metal.

Sunday is a comparative holiday at the Observatory; for then, except when any extraordinary phenomena are expected, the only duty done is to drop the Time Ball, and observe the moon's place. The moon is never neglected, and her motions have been here watched, during the last hundred and seventy years, with the most pertinacious care—to the great service of astronomy, and the great benefit of navigation.

The library should not pass unnoticed. It is small; but being devoted to works upon astronomy, and the kindred sciences, there is ample room for all that has hitherto been written on the subject, or that can, for many generations, be produced. The observations of a lifetime spent in watching the stars may be printed in marvelously few pages. A glance through the Greenwich Astronomical Library gives a rough general idea of what the world has done and is doing for the promotion of this science. Russia contributes large, imperial-looking tomes, that tell of extended observations made under the munificent patronage of a despot; Germany sends from different points a variety of smaller, cheaper-looking, yet valuable contributions; France gives proofs of her genius and her discoveries; but *her* forte is not in observation. The French are bad observers. They have no such proofs of unremitting, patient toil in search of facts, as those afforded in the records of the Greenwich Tables of the Moon. Indeed, Greenwich, as we have already said, is a working Observatory; and those who go into its library, and its fire-proof manuscript room, and see how its volumes of observations have been growing from the small beginnings of the days of Flamsteed and Halley, to those of our later and more liberal times, will have good reason to acknowledge that the money devoted to this establishment has been well employed.

One other spot must be noticed as among the notable things in this astronomical sanctum. It is the Chronometer room, to which, during the first three Mondays in the year, the chief watchmakers of London send in their choicest instruments for examination and trial. The watches remain for a good portion of the year; their rates being noted, day by day, by two persons; and then the makers of the best receive prizes, and their instruments are purchased for the navy. Other competitors obtain certificates of excellence, which bring customers from the merchant service; while others pass unrewarded. To enter the room where these admirable instruments are kept, suggests the idea of going into a Broddignag watch factory. Round the place are ranged shelves, on which the large watches are placed, all ticking in the most distinct and formidable way one against another. When they first arrive, in January, they are left to the ordinary atmospheric temperature for some months. Their rates being taken under these circumstances, a large stove in the center of the apartment is lighted, and heat got up to a sort of artificial East India or Gold Coast point.

Tried under these influences, they are placed in an iron tray over the stove, like so many watch-pies in a baker's dish, and the fire being encouraged, they are literally kept baking, to see how their metal will stand that style of treatment. While thus hot their rates are once more taken; and then, after this fiery ordeal, such of them as their owners like to trust to an opposite test, are put into freezing mixtures! Yet, so beautifully made are these triumphs of human ingenuity—so well is their mechanism “corrected” for compensating the expansion caused by the heat, and the contraction induced by the cold—that an even rate of going is established, so nearly, that its variation under opposite circumstances becomes a matter of close and certain estimate.

The rates of chronometers on trial for purchase by the Board of Admiralty, at the Observatory, are posted up and printed in an official form. Upon looking to the document for last year, we find a statement of their performances during six months of 1849, with memoranda of the exact weeks during which the chronometers were exposed to the open air at a north window; the weeks the chronometer room was heated by a stove, the chronometers being dispersed on the surrounding shelves; and the weeks during which they were placed in the tray above the stove. The rate given during the first week of trial is in every case omitted; like newly entered schoolboys, their early vagaries are not taken into account; but after that, every merit and every fault is watched with jealous care, and when the day of judgment comes, the order of the arrangement of the chronometers in the list is determined solely by consideration of their irregularities of rate as expressed in the columns, “Difference between greatest and least,” and “Greatest difference between one week and the next.”

The Royal Observatory, according to a superstition not wholly extinct, is the head-quarters, not only of Astronomy, but of Astrology. The structure is awfully regarded, by a small section of the community which ignorance has still left among us, as a manufactory of horoscopes, and a repository for magic mirrors and divining rods. Not long ago a well dressed woman called at the Observatory gate to request a hint as to the means of recovering a lost sum of money; and recently somebody at Brighton dispatched the liberal sum of five shillings in a post office order to the same place, with a request to have his nativity cast in return! Another, only last year, wrote as follows: “I have been informed that there are persons at the Observatory who will, by my inclosing a remittance and the hour of my birth, give me to understand *who is to be my wife!* An early answer, stating all particulars, will oblige,” &c.

This sketch, descriptive of its real duties and uses, is not necessary to relieve the Greenwich Observatory from the charge of being an abode of sorcerers and astrologers. A few only of the most ignorant can yet entertain such notions of its character; but they are not wholly unfounded. Magicians, whose symbols are the Arabic numerals, and whose *arcana* are mathematical computations, daily foretell events in that building with unerring certainty. They pre-discover the future of the stars down to their minutest evolution and eccentricity. From data furnished from the Royal Observatory, is compiled an extraordinary prophetic Almanac from which all other almanacs are copied. It foretells to a second when and where each of the planets may be seen in the heavens at any minute for



the next three years. The current number of the Nautical Almanac is for the Year of Grace 1856.

In this quiet sanctuary, then, the winds are made to register their own course and force, and the rain to gauge its own quantity as it falls; the planets are watched to help the mariner to steer more safely over the seas; and the heavens themselves are investigated for materials from which their future as well as their past history may be written.

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## CHIVALRY AND THE CRUSADES.

**T**HE institution and spirit of chivalry form a prominent and important feature of history, and have been regarded by writers and men of erudition in various points of view; while some have condemned it as altogether injurious and absurd, others have dignified it with the title of sublime! There have been found men of modern days, and those the fortunate possessors of more than common abilities, who would sigh over the degeneracy of the times, and lament that the age of chivalry is gone. But if the material and least worthy part of it has passed away, its spirit still remains, still invites men to high and honorable deeds, and is indeed imperishable and immortal. The vows of knighthood, the ceremonials of installations, the pomp and ceremony of knightly feats, have gone; but the devotion of the patriot, the ardor of the warrior, the warmth of the lover, the fidelity of the friend, the loyalty and truth of the man of honor, do not sleep in the graves of Charlemagne, Roland, and Bayard.

In seeking for the origin of chivalry, we are led back to the feudal ages, and the consideration of the condition of the Germanic tribes, when its peculiar spirit first began to display itself. The tribes were composed, not of superiors and inferiors, but of masters and slaves; of men whose birth-right was ease and honor, and of others who inherited the bond of ceaseless toil. By the noble-born, labor of any kind was considered degrading, and the profession of arms alone worthy of being followed; so that the lords of the soil were a race of independent warriors, whose thirst for fame was a continual excitement. The different feudal sovereigns were nominally subject to a legitimate prince, and were bound to follow his banner into battle, at the head of their vassals, and to respond to his call, by bringing, at a moment's warning, an armed force to his support. Still, when removed from the presence of his sovereign, the feudal lord was a petty despot, whose vassals felt that he possessed absolute power of life and death over them.

Unlimited authority gave rise to various abuses, and it was well that chivalry, with its high tone of honor and morality, sprang up in ages of general darkness, fraud, and oppression. Great enterprises contributed to bind numbers of knights together, and led to the formation of various societies and orders; and when these military adventurers were not leagued together in any of the Holy Wars, a reciprocity of principle, and an iden-

tity of religion, held them in a common chain. Animated by a love of justice, a veneration for the fair sex, a high-minded regard for truth, a thirst for military glory, and a contempt for danger, the knights went forth, to brave peril, to rescue the unfortunate, and to crush the oppressor. Numerous individuals set forth with no fixed purpose but that of discovering some wrong and righting it, and these wandering champions were called *Knights Errant*, and their exploits sang in camp and court by the minstrels, whose lays immortalized the sons of chivalry. Chivalry degenerated, but not rapidly. After the lapse of many years from its foundation, the number of its ceremonials increased, its pageantry was disgraced by frippery and folly, its vows were unobserved; a devotion to the sex was succeeded by boundless licentiousness, and the wandering spirit of knight-errantry was displaced by an affectation of eccentricity.

In the fourteenth century, the honors of knighthood were restricted to the nobility, and then arose the various forms and ceremonies, which at length concealed the original design of chivalry, and brought on a premature decline. The knightly education of a youth generally commenced with his twelfth year, when he was sent to the court of some noble pattern of chivalry, to learn dancing, riding, the use of his weapon, &c., and where his chief duty was assiduous attention to the ladies in the quality of page. According to his progress in years and accomplishments, he became squire to some knight, and when he fairly merited the distinction, he was himself knighted. This honor was not conferred upon a youth before his twenty-first year, unless high birth, or extraordinary valor and address, seemed to warrant the setting aside of the usual regulation. Sometimes the honor was won by many a field of bloody toil, with many drops of sweat and gore, and not unfrequently, one daring achievement, artfully planned, and gallantly carried into execution, procured the wished-for spurs, and the anticipated *accolade*.

The ceremony of conferring knighthood was often performed on the field of battle, where the honor had been earned; often it required and received the most imposing preparations and ceremonies. The young candidate guarded his arms for a night, and this was called the *vigil of arms*. In the morning, he bathed in water, which was the emblem of the truth and purity which he swore to preserve sacred. Clad in spotless garments, he kneeled before the altar of the nearest church, and, having presented his sword to the officiating priest, received it again with the benediction of the reverend man. After taking the oaths of allegiance, he knelt before his sovereign, who gave him the *accolade*, or blow upon the neck with the flat of his sword, saluted the young warrior, and said: "In the name of God and St. Michael, (or, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost,) I dub thee a knight. Be loyal, brave, and fortunate."

It was customary for two knights of the same age and congenial tempers to form a friendship, and this brotherhood in arms lasted generally until one of the two was laid in the grave. The courtesy of chivalry softened the asperity of war, gave charms to victory, and assuaged to the vanquished the pain of a defeat. All that ingenuity could plan, and wealth produce, to give splendor to knighthood, was displayed in the age of chivalry. Magnificent tournaments were held, where even kings entered the lists, and contended for the prize of valor, before the eyes of thousands of spectators, among whom beautiful ladies appeared the most deeply interested.



In fact, the knights often contended about the charms of their lady-loves, and wore their favors in their helmets. If the ladies of Rome attended gladiatorial shows in throngs, we cannot wonder that the beauties of the age of chivalry looked forward to a tournament with great impatience, and eagerly strove for the honor of filling the post of temporary queen and distributor of the prizes.

Chivalry exerted a powerful influence on poetry, and formed the subjects of the poems of the *troubadours*, of the south of France, as well as supplied themes for the poetical controversies of the knights, which were decided at the *cours d'amour* (courts of love,) first established in Provence. Even after chivalry had died away, its influence was not unfelt by poetry, which retained the tone it had imparted for many centuries.

Crusades, or Croisades, was the name given to the expeditions fitted out by the Christian warriors of Europe, for the recovery of the Holy Land, from the end of the eleventh to the end of the thirteenth century. The Crusades derived their name from the badge of the cross, which was wrought upon their mantles, and appeared in various parts of their equipments.

The age was one in which the people were peculiarly adapted to the reception of enthusiastic religious impulses. The Christians could not bear to think that the places which they held so dear, and which the history of their religion hallowed, should be desecrated by the presence of infidels, and rendered dangerous to those pilgrims whom a sincere feeling of reverence called to Palestine. The church called upon the chivalry of Europe, and the knights responded to the summons.

The rise of the Crusades is immediately attributable to the enthusiasm of a wandering pilgrim, called Peter the Hermit, who, having experienced the tyrannical exactions imposed on the visitors of the holy sepulchre, represented them to Pope Urban II. in such lively colors, that the prelate selected him as the instrument of a grand design which he had formed to overthrow the Mohammedan power; and Peter, armed with the holy commission, went from province to province, to kindle up that enthusiasm by which he was himself consuming.

When the feelings of the people and the potentates appeared ripe for some wild project, Urban held a council in the open fields at Piacenza, and proposed his scheme, which was warmly applauded, but not as warmly embraced. Another council was therefore held at Clermont, France, graced by the presence of ambassadors from all nations, and the result was as favorable as he could have anticipated. The pope held out to the crusaders the promise of spiritual pardon, and imposed on them only the penance of plunder for their sins. Thus excited, the enthusiasm became general; noblemen sold their estates for outfits; the meanest lords of the manors set forth at their own expense; the poor gentlemen followed them as esquires; and above eighty thousand collected under the banners of the cross. Godfrey, of Boulogne, was at the head of seventy thousand foot; and ten thousand horse, splendidly armed, were under the command of many lords, who were joined by Hugh, brother to Philip I., of France, Raymond of Toulouse, Bohemond, King of Sicily, and others of equal and less note. A proposal was made to the pope to put himself at their head, but he refused. This refusal, however, did not damp their ardor.

Confiding in their cause, their numbers, and their equipments, they traversed Germany and Hungary, took Nice, Antioch, and Edessa, and arrived

at Jerusalem in 1099. The city was taken after five weeks' siege. All but the Christians were massacred, and the army of crusaders, after the perpetration of unparalleled atrocities, went to shed their tears at the sepulchre of Christ! Godfrey of Boulogne, (not without opposition from the priests,) was elected King of Jerusalem, but died in 1100. In 1102, an immense army, which departed for the Holy Land, was defeated, and no fewer than two hundred thousand men lost to Europe by the enterprise. The capture of Baldwin, and the loss of Edessa, occasioned a new crusade.

France again gave the impulse to their religious excitement. Pope Eugenius III. induced St. Bernard, of Clairvaux, to act the part of Peter the Hermit, and the consequence was that Louis the Young, accompanied by his wife, Eleanor of Guienne, departed for the Holy Land, and Conrad III., in whose hands the red cross was placed, led a large army into Asia. Both of them, however, were unsuccessful.

The unfortunate issue of the second crusade was precipitated by the dissensions of the Christians, and the uncommon abilities of the Sultan Saladin, who, advancing at the head of an army that placed implicit confidence in the courage and skill of their leader, animated by a religious fury no less absorbing than that which filled the breasts of the crusaders, threw himself upon Jerusalem, which, unable to hold out against him, once more echoed to the shouts of Saracen conquerors, as they again erected their crescent on the ramparts of the city. The Christians lost all their possessions but Antioch, Tripoli, Joppa, and Tyre.

The leaders of the third crusade, (1189,) were Frederick I. of Germany, surnamed Barbarossa, the chivalric Philip Augustus of France, and the lion-hearted Richard I. of England. Barbarossa was ultimately unsuccessful, but the monarchs of France and England took possession of Ptolemais or Acre. Philip Augustus, from motives of jealousy, left the field to Richard, who proved himself a worthy rival of Saladin, and the two commanders performed wonderful feats of arms, which were the admiration of both armies. The fourth crusade was conducted by Andrew II. King of Hungary, and the fifth by Frederick II. of Germany. The results of these ought to have shown that the Christians could not hope to gain permanent possession of the country. It was this time that St. Louis, King of France, undertook the sixth and last crusade, which, though well conceived, and vigorously carried on, was unsuccessful. In the last crusade no fewer than one hundred and fifty thousand persons perished; add to this the number that died in former expeditions, and it will be seen that the East was the tomb of above two millions of Europeans; and several countries were depopulated and impoverished by the crusades. Yet the Holy Wars were not without good. They created an intimate connection and a constant intercourse between the nations of Europe, which, as it was favorable to commercial enterprise, increased the wealth, improved the arts, and contributed to establish the civilization, of the Christian world.



## MARIE ANTOINETTE.

**M**ARIE ANTOINETTE, the unfortunate wife of Louis XVI. of France, was the daughter of Francis I. Emperor of Germany, and Maria Theresa of Austria, and was born at Vienna, in 1755. Her accomplishments, talents, grace, virtue, and uncommon loveliness, fitted her for the queen of a gallant nation, and as such she should been honored in France, had she lived before oppression had roused the people to madness. Her mother, in a letter to her future husband, after alluding to the care with which she had formed her mind, says, "Above all things, I have recommended to her humility before God, because I am convinced that it is impossible for us to secure the happiness of the subjects confided to us, without love to Him, who destroys the sceptres and the thrones of kings according to his will."

The marriage took place at Versailles, May 16, 1770, and was celebrated with uncommon splendor; but immediately after the ceremony, a thunder-storm of unparalleled violence broke over the palace of Versailles, darkened the surrounding scenery, and struck terror into the hearts of the people for miles around. On the thirtieth of May, the festivities of Paris were saddened by a most terrible accident; a number of citizens being crushed to death in the Rue Royale, by some mismanagement on the part of the proper authorities. Fifty-three persons were found dead, and three hundred more were dangerously injured.

The magnanimity of Marie Antoinette displayed itself soon after her elevation to the throne, upon the death of Louis XV. An officer of the *gardes du corps* (body-guard) who had given her offense on some former occasion, expressed his intention of resigning his commission, but the queen forbade him. "Remain," said she; "forget the past. Far be it from the Queen of France to avenge the injuries of the dauphiness." She devoted herself to the interests of her people with an assiduity unparalleled in a sovereign of her age, yet, becoming obnoxious to the court party, her character was assailed in every shape and quarter. She was accused of setting on foot conspiracies which never existed, and of entertaining views which never entered her mind. She was termed the *Austrian*, and it was openly asserted, as well as privately insinuated, that her heart was estranged from the country of her husband, and her mind solely occupied with the interests of her native land.

In her conduct there was matter for gentle reproof, but none for malevolent accusation. A gayety which sometimes degenerated into levity, a passion for fashionable novelties, and an unwary contempt for court formalities, instead of being regarded as the foibles and imprudences of a young and innocent mind, were construed into evidences of the existence of loose principles, unbridled extravagance, and hatred for the nation. She was likewise charged with pettishness under reproof, and we can readily conceive how a female of so high a rank, conscious of the purity of her intentions, and perpetually assailed by reckless cavillers, assumed, in reply to the unworthy insinuations of her enemies, the tone which her virtue and

her birth appeared to warrant. The affair of the diamond necklace created an extraordinary sensation. A jeweler, at Paris, demanded payment for a necklace so costly that the finances of a queen would hardly warrant its purchase. The result of an examination was the proof of the queen's integrity. A lady, of the stature and complexion of the queen, had succeeded in disguising herself, and passing herself off as Antoinette, upon a cardinal, in a midnight meeting in the park of Versailles.

On the sixth of October, 1789, the mob broke into the palace of Versailles, murdered some of the body-guards, and threatened the queen in the most frightful language. At midnight she received a letter from a friendly clergyman, advising her to seek safety in flight, as her life would be sacrificed early the next morning. She resolved to remain, and destroyed the letter. She heard the footsteps of the ruffian rabble—she thought her time had come—but her life was saved. The progress of the ruffians was arrested at the very door of her bed-chamber, where her faithful guardsmen laid down their lives to secure for their queen a retreat to the chamber of the king. The king and queen showed themselves with their children in the balcony. The mass of heads beneath, for a moment, ceased to be agitated—but it was only for a moment. Silence was broken by a thousand tongues: "No children! no children!—the queen, the queen, alone!" This was a trying moment; but Antoinette had firmness for the crisis. Putting her son and daughter into her husband's arms, she advanced alone into the balcony. A spectacle like this filled the fierce people with admiration, and thundering shouts of *Vive la Reine!* (long live the queen!) succeeded to the imprecations of the preceding moment. Such is the fickleness of a mob. The march to Paris was a succession of terrors. The heads of two faithful guardsmen, elevated on pikes, met the eyes of the poor queen as she looked from her carriage windows!

The fate of Antoinette darkened rapidly. With the king she fled to Varennes—with him was brought back to Paris. Her courage did not fail in the scene of the Legislative Assembly, before which body she was present with her husband, heard his deposition pronounced, and then went into the Temple, where he was imprisoned. Here, where the light of heaven faintly fell through grated windows, surrounded by her family, she appeared to feel entire resignation to the will of Him, on whom the happiness of the humblest individual depends. When she heard the condemnation of the king, from the lips of the royal victim, she had the firmness to congratulate him on the speedy delivery from trouble which awaited him. The eternal separation from her son did not shake her firmness, and, with a heart apparently unbroken, she was consigned to the loathsome depths of a dungeon, August 5, 1793. The accusations brought against the unhappy queen, on her trial, were all unfounded, and merely advanced because her enemies had still respect enough for justice to mimic its forms in their guilty court. She was charged with having squandered the public money, and with leaguings in secret with the foreign enemies of France. The clearness of her innocence, the falsehood and frivolity of witnesses, the eloquence of defenders, were of no avail—Marie Antoinette was doomed to die upon the scaffold!

The expression of her countenance, as she passed to the place of execution, awed the bloodthirsty populace; but the once matchless beauty of that noble countenance was gone for ever. One unacquainted with the



ravages of grief could not have believed that the haggard and forsaken being whom they led to sacrifice was the same young queen who, a short time before, held in thrall the chivalry of France, by her exquisite loveliness, her winning grace, and sportive gayety. Antoinette cast back a long last look at the Tuilleries—a look which told of sorrowful remembrance and of agonizing emotion—then, with an air of dignified resignation, she ascended the scaffold. “My God!” cried she, as she kneeled on that fatal platform, “enlighten and affect my executioner! Adieu, my children—my beloved ones—for ever! I am going to your father!”

This noble woman perished in her thirty-eighth year, October 16, 1793.

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## MAGNA CHARTA.

**M**AGNA CHARTA, the *Great Charter of England*, and deemed the foundation of English liberty, was extorted from King John I. by the barons, or nobles, who had become dissatisfied with his tyranny. He met them on Friday, 15th of June, 1215, in a large meadow, between Windsor and Staines, called *Runimede*, which means the *meadow of council*, and which was so called because it had been used by the Saxons as a place for public meetings. John signed the document with great reluctance, but he dared not refuse. By it the nobles were relieved from much of the oppressive tyranny of the feudal system. This had been constantly increasing, till no subject could act in the commonest affairs of life without the king's consent, which could be obtained only for money.

We can understand the sort of interference the king had in every person's concerns, when we learn that no one could marry without his consent, and that he could oblige heiresses to marry whom he pleased. Enormous sums were paid by females, either for leave to marry, or, more commonly, that they might not be forced to wed against their will. Thus we read of a Countess of Chester, who paid King Stephen five hundred marks that she might not be obliged to marry for five years; and of a Countess of Warwick, who paid King John five hundred marks, that she might not be compelled to marry till she pleased. This sum would be equal to forty or perhaps fifty thousand dollars at the present day.

The Great Charter contains sixty-three articles, and yet only one of these is for the protection of the laboring people. It provides that “*even* a farmer shall not by any fine be deprived of his carts, ploughs, and implements of husbandry.” The invidious word “*even*,” shows plainly how little they were considered or thought of at this period. The truth is that the boasted *Magna Charta* of England was a charter of greater liberty to the nobles, but the mass had little interest in it. English liberty, at the present day, is modeled after this ancient document, which leaves power and privilege in the hands of the few, and denies it to the many.

## THE MISSISSIPPI BUBBLE.

**L**OUIS XIV. having, by his extravagance, and by frequent expensive and unprofitable wars, created a debt of three thousand millions of livres, and by so doing, laid a foundation broad and deep, for the wide-spread ruin that followed, died at Versailles, on the first of September, 1715, in the seventy-eight year of his age, and the seventy-third of his reign. He was succeeded by his grandson, Louis XV, then a child five years old, of a feeble and delicate constitution; and the Duke of Orleans, a nephew of the late king, notwithstanding his dissolute morals, and his proximity to the throne, against the will of the great monarch, became Regent of France.

The valley of the Mississippi, including Illinois, was at that time held and occupied by Crozat, under a grant made by Louis XIV, in 1712. The little barter between the inhabitants of Louisiana and the natives, insignificant as it was, and the petty trade between the French and the other European settlements in their vicinity, was rendered almost profitless by the fatal monopoly of the Parisian merchant. The Indians were too numerous and too powerful to be controlled by his factors. The English had monopolized already a portion of the Indian trade. Every Spanish harbor on the Gulf of Mexico had been closed against his vessels, and every Frenchman in Louisiana was not only hostile to his interest, but was aiding and assisting to foment difficulties in the colony. Crozat's retrocession, therefore, of Louisiana to the crown, in 1717, was the result of necessity, as well as choice.

The misfortunes of La Salle, the ill success of Iberville and Crozat, were still remembered, and the bones of deceased emigrants, who had sought the Mississippi as their homes, still whitened its valley; yet visions of untold wealth, existing somewhere on its tributary waters, were again revived; and mines of silver and gold, plantations of indefinite extent and surpassing beauty, towns and cities, commerce and the arts, again invoked to replenish an exhausted treasury, and preserve, if possible, a sinking empire. Hence the Mississippi scheme, or Bubble, as it sometimes is termed.

John Law, the projector of this scheme, was born at Edinburg, Scotland, in 1761. At the age of fourteen, he was received into his father's counting-house, in Edinburg, as a clerk, and for about three years labored assiduously at his desk. His father's occupation was that of a goldsmith and banker. By his death, in 1688, a considerable fortune descended to this, his only son, who, at the early age of seventeen, sallied forth, without rudder or compass, into a wide, tumultuous, and deceitful world.

Young, vain, good-looking, tolerably rich, and unrestrained, he proceeded to London, where he frequented the most fashionable gaming-houses, and pursuing on all occasions a certain plan, based on abtruse calculations, he won considerable money, and gamblers envied his luck.



In gallantry he was equally fortunate, and ladies of exalted rank smiled graciously upon the handsome Scotchman.

Success, however, soon paved the way for reverses, and as the love of play increased in violence, it diminished in prudence. Great losses could only be repaired by greater ventures, and notwithstanding his long experience, at the close of an unlucky day, he lost everything he had. Goods, chattels, credit, money, and character, even the patrimony now his by a father's bounty.

His gallantry, at the same time, led him into serious difficulty, and a love affair, a slight flirtation with a Miss Villars, afterward the Countess of Orkney, exposed him to the resentment of a Mr. Wilson, by whom he was challenged to fight a duel. He accepted the challenge, killed his antagonist on the spot, was arrested the same day, and soon thereafter was indicted for murder, tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged. This sentence was afterward commuted for a fine, upon the ground that the offense amounted only to manslaughter. An appeal was entered by the brother of the deceased, and the prisoner detained in jail, from whence he escaped and fled to the Continent.

For about three years he traversed the Continent, devoting his mornings to the study of finance and the principles of trade, and his evenings to the gaming-house, and returned to Edinburg in 1700, where he issued proposals for establishing a council of trade—they excited, however, but little attention.

Having failed in every project he attempted in Scotland, and his efforts to procure a pardon for the murder of Wilson, having proved abortive, he withdrew to the Continent to resume his occupation as a gambler, and to become the friend and the companion of princes. For fourteen years he roamed about Flanders, Holland, Germany, Hungary, Italy and France, supporting himself by successful play. During that period he studied the European character, became acquainted with the trade and resources of those nations through which he wandered, and was daily more and more convinced, that no country could prosper without a paper currency. At every gambling-house of note, in almost every capital in Europe, he was more known and appreciated in the doctrines of chance than any other. Having been expelled first from France, and afterward from Genoa, by the magistrates, who thought him a dangerous visitor, he repaired to Paris, where he became obnoxious to the police, and was ordered to quit the capital. He had made, however, the acquaintance of the gay Duke of Orleans, who promised to become his patron. Louis XIV. then occupied the throne. Law proposed his scheme of finance to the comptroller of the public funds, who was asked by the king if the projector was a Catholic, and being answered in the negative, Louis XIV. declined his services.

His scheme was next proposed to the reigning Duke of Savoy, who at once told the projector that his dominions were too limited for the execution of so great a project, and that he was too poor a potentate to be ruined; that he had no doubt, however, but the French people, if he knew anything of their character, would be delighted with a plan so new and so plausible, and advised him to go to France. Louis XIV. being now in his grave, and an infant on the throne, the Duke of Orleans, a friend and patron of Law, assumed the reins of government as regent of France.

The extravagances of the former monarch had thrown the national finances into the utmost disorder, and France was on the brink of ruin, when

John Law presented himself at court, and was cordially received. He insisted, that all the evils which had befallen France were owing, not to the improvidence, extravagance, or the malversation of those who had been, or were then in power, but to an insufficient currency. That the specie of France, unaided by paper money, was inadequate to its wants, and cited England and Holland as examples. He thereupon proposed to set up a bank, which should have the management of the royal revenues, and issue notes on that and landed security. That it should be administered in the king's name, and be subject to the control of commissioners, to be appointed by the States General.

On the 5th of May, 1716, a royal edict was published, by which Law and his brother were authorized to establish a bank, with a capital of six millions of livres, the notes of which should be received in the payment of taxes. They were issued, payable at sight, and in the coin current at *the time they were issued*. This last was a master stroke of policy, and immediately rendered his notes more valuable than the precious metals. The capital consisted of one-fourth specie, and three-fourths State securities. The stock was, of course, immediately subscribed. A thousand livres of silver might be worth their nominal value one day, and one-fifth less the next; but a note of Law's bank retained its original value. Law, in the meantime, publicly declared, that a banker deserved death who made issues without the means for their redemption. The consequence was, that the note shortly commanded a premium of "fifteen per cent," while the notes issued by government, as security for debts contracted by the extravagance of Louis XIV, were at seventy-eight and a half per cent. discount.

The contrast was so great, that Law's credit rapidly extended itself, and branches of his bank were at the same time established in Lyons, Rochelle, Tours, Amiens, and Orleans. The regent became astonished at its success; and paper money, which could thus aid metallic currency, it was thought, could supersede it altogether. On this fundamental error, both the regent and the French people, simultaneously acted.

Law, whose influence was now irresistible, next proposed his famous Mississippi scheme. This became afterward a connecting link between his history and ours, and rendered his name immortal.

Letters patent were issued in 1717, to establish a trading company to the Mississippi, known at first as the Western Company, to be divided into two hundred thousand shares, of five hundred livres each. Its capital to be composed of State securities at par; a hundred millions of the most depreciated stocks were thus absorbed, and the Government became indebted to a company, of its own creation, instead of individuals, for that amount. Through a bank previously established by Law, the interest in this portion of the public debt was punctually paid, in consequence whereof, an immediate rise in its value took place, from a depreciation of seventy-eight and a half per cent. to par. The person, therefore, who had purchased a hundred livres of State debts, which he could have done at any time for twenty-one and a half livres, and invested it in stocks of the Western Company, was now enabled to realize in cash, one hundred livres for his investment. Large fortunes were thus speedily acquired. Although the union of the bank with the risks and responsibilities of a commercial company, was ominous of its future destiny, the interest of its capital for one year, having been paid—not from its profits, for none had accrued, but from other



sources, all of them fictitious—public credit was apparently restored, as if by a miracle.

Crozat having resigned the commerce of Louisiana, it was transferred immediately to the Western Company, and the valley of the Mississippi inflamed at once the public mind. The whole of France saw, in prospect, its future glory, and beheld the opulence of coming ages already in their grasp.

On the 25th of August, 1717, eight hundred emigrants arrived in three vessels, and cast anchor near Dauphin Island, instead of ascending the Mississippi. They there disembarked; some perished for want of enterprise, some for want of food, some from the climate, and some prospered exceedingly. Hardy emigrants from Canada resorted thither, and these, by their enterprise, were more successful than any other colonists. The city of New Orleans was immediately founded among cane-brakes, and named after the dissolute regent, who “denied God, and trembled at a star.”

Law's bank, in the meantime, had wrought such wonders in France, that new privileges were conferred upon it daily. It monopolized the tobacco trade; it monopolized, also, the slave trade; for the French colonies, it enjoyed the right of refining gold and silver; and was finally, in January, 1717, erected into the royal bank of France. The Western or Mississippi Company, was also merged into the “Company of the Indies,” and new shares of its stocks were created, and sold at an enormous profit.

The Company of the Indies being now connected with the royal bank of France, its first attempts at colonization were conducted with careless prodigality. To entice emigrants thither, the richest prairies, the most inviting fields in the whole valley of the Mississippi, were conceded to companies, or individuals who sought principalities in America. An extensive prairie in Arkansas, bounded on all sides by the sky, was conceded to Law himself, where he designed to plant a city, and actually expended a million and a half of livres for that purpose. He also purchased and sent to Louisiana, three hundred slaves. Mechanics from France, and emigrants from Germany were, at his expense, transported thither, and gifts of great value were lavished by his agents upon those savage tribes with whom they had smoked the calumet. Notwithstanding, however, his efforts and his expenditures, that industry, that economy and perseverance so essential to the prosperity of a new settlement was not there; and when a Jesuit priest, in 1729, visited the colony, thirty miserable Frenchmen alone remained, and those had been abandoned by their employers.

During this paroxysm, when every stockholder in the Western Company supposed that his coffers were already filled, and his happiness complete, Fort Chartres, near Kaskaskia, in Illinois, was projected. It was built by the company in 1720, to protect themselves against the Spaniards, with whom France was then at war, and was located near the center of the French settlements in Illinois. Eighty thousand shares were added to the stock of the royal India company, at one time. For these new shares, three hundred thousand applications were made, and Law's house was beset from morning until night, with eager applicants; and as it was some time before the list of fortunate stockholders could be completed, the public impatience rose to a pitch of frenzy.

Dukes, marquises, and counts, with their wives and daughters, waited for hours in the streets, before his door, to know the result; and to avoid

being jostled by the plebeian crowd, took apartments in the adjacent houses, the rents of which rose from a thousand livres, to twelve, and in some instances, sixteen thousand livres per annum. The demand for shares was so great, induced by so many golden dreams, that it was thought advisable to increase them three hundred thousand more, at five hundred livres each; and such was the eagerness of the nation to become subscribers, that three times the amount, if the Government had ordered it, would at once have been taken.

Law was now in the zenith of his glory, and the people in the zenith of their infatuation. The high and the low, the rich and the poor, were at once filled with visions of boundless wealth; and the people of every age and sex, rank and condition, were engaged in buying and selling stock. A cobbler, who had a stall near Mr. Law's, gained two hundred livres a day by letting it out, and finding materials to brokers and other clients. A humpbacked man, who stood in the street, as the story goes, gained considerable sums by lending his back, as a writing-desk, to the eager spectators. Law finding his residence inconvenient, removed to the Place Vendome, whither the crowd followed him; and the spacious square had the appearance of a public market, and a lease was also taken of the Hotel de Soissons.

Peers, judges, and bishops, thronged the Hotel de Soissons; officers of the army and navy, ladies of title and fashion, were seen waiting in the ante-chamber of Mr. Law, to beg for a portion of his India stock. He was unable to see one-tenth part of the applicants, and every species of ingenuity was employed to gain an audience. Peers, whose dignity would have been outraged if the regent had made them wait half an hour for an interview, were content to wait six hours, for the purpose of seeing this wily adventurer.

While this confidence lasted, an impetus was given to trade, which it had never known. Strangers flocked to the capital from every part of the globe, and its population was temporarily increased three hundred and five thousand souls. Housekeepers were obliged to make up beds in garrets, kitchens, and even stables, for the accommodation of lodgers. The looms of the country worked with uncommon activity. Provisions shared the general advance; wages rose in the same proportion. The artisan who had gained his fifteen sous a day, now gained sixty. An illusory prosperity everywhere prevailed, and so dazzled the eyes of the victim, that no one could perceive on the horizon a dark cloud, which announced the approaching storm.

Law, at this time, was by far the most influential person in the State; his wife and daughters were courted by the highest nobility, and their alliance sought by ducal and princely houses.

In 1720, an alarm was created. Some specie was demanded; Law became alarmed—the precious metals had left the kingdom. Coin, for more than five hundred livres, was declared an illegal tender. A council of state was held, and it was ascertained that two thousand six hundred millions of livres were in circulation; and on the 27th of May, the bank stopped payment. The people assailed Law's carriage with stones as he was entering his own door, and but for the dexterity of his coachman, he would have been torn to pieces. On the following day, his wife and daughters were attacked by the mob, as they were returning in their carriage, from the races. The regent being informed of these occurrences, sent him a guard for his protection. Finding his own house, even with this guard,



insecure, he repaired to the palace, and took apartments with the regent. He afterwards left the kingdom; his estates and library were confiscated, and he died at Venice, in extreme poverty, in 1729.

Such was the fate of John Law, who had caused several millions of livres to be expended in Illinois, and, for several years had used the Mississippi valley as the means, or the instrument, of his ambition. Stock-jobbers and speculators had used it also for a similar purpose; and New-Orleans was more famous in Paris when covered with cane-brakes, than it has been since.

Law held, that the currency of a country was the mere "representative of its moving wealth;" that it need not, therefore, of itself, possess intrinsic value; that the wealth of a nation may be "indefinitely increased by an arbitrary infusion of paper;" that credit consisted in the "excess of circulation over immediate resources; and, that the "advantage of credit is in the direct ratio of that excess." Hence the whimsical project of collecting the gold and silver of a kingdom into one bank, and supplying its place by an exclusive paper currency.

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## EL DORADO.

AS the first conquerors of the Spanish Main penetrated into the interior, they received information from the various Indian tribes, which wrought strongly upon their excited imaginations and avaricious feelings. They were assured that by marching a considerable distance to the south, they would come to a region on the shores of a broad lake, inhabited by Indians of a peculiar character, known by the name of *Ome gas*. These people were represented as highly civilized, living under regular laws, principally in a large city, the houses of which were covered with silver. According to the accounts, the magistrates and ministers of religion wore habits of massy gold. All their furniture was of gold and silver. The nation, equally populous and warlike, kept on foot armies so formidable as to render them the terror of the surrounding tribes. In every part of Venezuela and Caraccas, to which the Spaniards directed their steps, they received similar accounts, and from Indians too far separated by distance to have combined in the invention of the tale. It did not appear that superstition had any share in these traditions, for no supernatural virtue or power was attributed to the *Ome gas*.

These accounts were confirmed by information from other quarters. In Peru, Pizarro and his followers received intelligence of the existence of a nation, called the *Omaguas*, on the borders of a lake to the north-east of that country. The representations agreed with those of Venezuela, respecting the riches of these people, their power and policy. It was said that after the destruction of the Incas, a younger brother of Atahualpa had fled from Peru, carrying with him the greater part of the royal treasures, and founded a greater empire in the north than that of which he had been

deprived. Sometimes this emperor was called the Great Paytiti, sometimes the Great Moxo, sometimes the Enim, or Great Paru. It is undeniable that Manco Inca, the brother of Atahualpa, made his escape to the regions east of the Cordilleras; the remainder of his history is not clearly known.

An Indian at Lima affirmed that he had been in the capital of this country, the city of Manoa, of which he gave a minute description. Three thousand workmen were employed in the street of the silversmiths. The columns of the emperor's palace were of porphyry and alabaster; the galleries of ebony and cedar; the throne was of ivory, and the ascent to it by steps of gold. The palace stood on a small island in the lake. It was built of white stone. At the entrance were two towers, and between them was a column twenty-five feet in height; on the top of this was a large silver moon; and two *pumas*, or American lions, were fastened to the base with chains of gold. Beyond the place occupied by these was a quadrangle planted with trees, and watered by a silver fountain, which spouted through four golden pipes. The gate of the palace was of copper. Within, a golden sun was placed on an altar of silver, and four lamps were kept burning before it, day and night.

This territory obtained the name of *El Dorado*, which means "the gilded," and is variously derived. According to some accounts, it refers to the costume of the emperor, who was anointed every morning with a certain precious and fragrant gum, after which gold-dust was blown upon him through a tube, till he was encrusted with gold. This the barbarian thought a more magnificent and costly attire than could be afforded by any other potentate in the world. According to others, it was the chief priest who was gilded. All these stories found a ready belief in the minds of the Spaniards, fashioned to credulity by the wonders of the New World, and the obscurity in which much of it long remained involved. They who could believe in the existence of a fountain whose waters had the virtue to restore to youth and beauty the old and decrepit, could have no difficulty in giving their faith to the golden marvels of El Dorado, a region which differed from the known part of the continent only in enjoying a superiority in wealth. The accounts of Peru itself had been equally incredible before being verified by the conquest.

No geographical fiction ever occasioned so vast an expenditure of human life. The attempts to discover this powerful region cost the Spaniards more men and treasure than all their substantial conquests in the New World. A history of the expeditions in search of El Dorado would form a most singularly curious and interesting volume. There is nothing in romance to surpass the wonderful dangers, privations and sufferings, endured by the adventurers in these undertakings. Yet neither the disasters, nor even the almost total destruction of many of the bands, prevented others from following them. New adventurers were found to follow in quick succession; although the former had returned discomfited and disappointed, the last always flattered themselves with the hope that the discovery of El Dorado would be accomplished by them. The mania continued for ages, and was considered by some of the Spanish religionists as a device of the devil to lure mankind to their destruction.

Among these daring spirits was Philip Von Hutten, whose expedition is so much the more worthy of notice, as it was very nearly successful, and actually substantiates a part, at least, of the story of El Dorado. As



this singular and interesting portion of American history is probably not familiar to most of our readers, we shall dwell with some minuteness upon its details, particularly as they furnish materials the least equivocal which can be found, respecting the explanation of the great mystery. Von Hutten was one of those German adventurers who formed the first expedition of the Welsers to Venezuela, in 1528. Less savage than his companions, he did not yield to them in ambition and intrepidity. From the time of his arrival in America, to his death, a period of fifteen years, he seemed scarcely to have enjoyed a single instant of repose. Always on the march, fighting the Indians, living on wild fruit, exposed to all the extremes of an insalubrious climate, his life was a tissue of dangers and sufferings. In the course of his expeditions into the country in 1541, chance led him to a place where he learned that Quesada, one of the conquerors of Santa Fe de Bogota, had just passed with a body of infantry and cavalry, in quest of El Dorado. The news was true. Quesada marched a long distance, suffered much, and discovered nothing. Von Hutten determined to follow in his track, in order to obtain at least a part of the riches of El Dorado, should he arrive too late to share in the conquest.

After many days of incredible fatigue, he reached the province of Papamena. He found there an Indian equally distinguished by his rank and superior understanding. Von Hutten told him of his design. The Indian answered, with every appearance of good faith, that by continuing his march in that direction, he would only find uninhabited countries and deserts, where his men would starve to death. But if he wished, the Indian added, he would conduct him in person to a region abounding in gold and silver; this country was to the east, on the Guayauna, near the Lake of Parima. The Indian even showed him some apples of gold which his brother had lately brought from thence. Von Hutten saw fit to discredit this account, and pursued the route followed by Quesada, taking the Indian with him as a guide. But after a march of eight days, amid all sorts of difficulties and obstructions, the Indian, seeing that nothing could change the resolution of the Christians, took the opportunity of a dark night to escape. His flight, together with the badness of the roads, excited murmurs against the leader of the band, who, however, continued obstinately bent on pushing forward. All the soldiers complained of him for not following the advice of the Indian. He alone remained immovable in his resolution.

A few days after, they discovered a mountain resembling that at the foot of which El Dorado was said to be situated; but, on exploring it, their hopes were disappointed. The army, now reduced by intense fatigue and suffering, were obliged to pass the rainy season here, and endured the most cruel effects of hunger. Ants and reptiles were their only food. Many of the men swelled up and died in the most excruciating agonies; others lost their hair, their eyebrows, eye-lashes and nails. As soon as the favorable season returned, Von Hutten began his retreat to Coro, then the capital of Venezuela. On his march, he was obstructed by inundations, and halted till the waters should subside, at a village called Nuestra Senora de Fragoa. While his men were reposing themselves, and thought only of the pleasure of returning home, their commander, irritated at his disappointment, fixed his mind upon new endeavors to retrieve his fortunes. From the Indians of the neighborhood he learned that there was a region in a certain quarter,

richer by far than any that had yet been discovered. The inhabitants, called the Omegas, were represented as a warlike and ferocious race. Other Indians called them Itaguas, but they all agreed as to the topographical situation of the country.

Fired anew with brilliant hopes, Von Hutten determined to march immediately for the Omegas. His army was now reduced to forty men; but as soon as the plains were clear of water, he moved forward. The Indians offered to conduct him safely to the banks of the Guayuava, and they kept their word. He marched to the river by roads tolerably commodious, and there acquired fresh information. The natives told him that the city of Macatoa, through which he must necessarily pass, was on the other side of the river; this he could not cross without a canoe. One of these Indians appeared to him so sincere, that he commissioned him to go and apprise the inhabitants that he was there with forty men, on his way to more distant provinces; and that he requested a passage and the friendship of the natives, to whom he offered his own. The Indian fulfilled this commission, and returned the next morning with the son of the cacique, who was sent by his father to offer his friendship and hospitality to the strangers. Von Hutten, with his men, proceeded to Macatoa, and was received in the kindest manner.

The cacique, being told of their design, informed them that the country of the Omegas was in fact full of gold and silver, but that its population was so great, and so disciplined to war, that their attempt, with so small a body of men, was most rash and impracticable. No prospect of danger or difficulty, however, could shake the inflexible determination of the commander; and he therefore continued his march. The cacique furnished him with guides as far as the next town, which was distant nine days' journey, and gave him also recommendations to the cacique, who was his friend. This march was performed with tolerable comfort, as the roads through the wilderness were well wrought. The second cacique received the strangers with great affability. Like his friend of Macatoa, he told the general that his undertaking was utterly extravagant and desperate; but he also assured him that all which had been related of the Omegas was true. No nation had ever attacked them with success, and it was contrary to common sense to suppose that forty men, even though they had the strength and courage of lions, could subdue a whole nation highly populous and warlike. These representations, however, did not stagger the obstinate and self-willed leader; and the cacique, finding him resolved to make the attempt, consented to guide him to the country he was seeking; but warning him and his men, at the same time, to bear in mind that he had done his utmost to avert their calamitous fate. All this was heard with coolness and indifference; nothing was thought of but the region of gold and silver.

After four days' march, they arrived at a mountain, on the skirts of which they saw four or five villages surrounded by well cultivated fields; further off their eyes were ravished by the prospect of a broad and most delightful valley, in which stood a city so extensive as to stretch beyond their view. The streets appeared to be regularly laid out, and the houses well and compactly built. "There," exclaimed the cacique, "is the capital of the Omegas. Behold this famous region whose riches the Spaniards so ardently covet. That edifice in the centre is the dwelling of the governor, and the temple of a number of gods. The population of the place is



immense, and the order that is preserved there is admirable. The houses which you see scattered on the sides of the hills round the city are inhabited by those who practice agriculture, while the others exercise the trade of war. Now that you yourself see the strength of these people, you can reflect anew on the temerity of your project. If you persist, I must withdraw, and pray the gods to protect your lives."

Nothing could now repress the ardor of the adventurers, inflamed by the sight of the object which they had been so long pursuing. They took leave of the cacique, and marched immediately to the city. On approaching some houses, they met a few of the Indians, who, struck with surprise at the sight of men with beards, white faces, and in strange dresses, instantly took to flight. They were pursued, and Von Hutten unfortunately overtook and seized one of them. The Indian was armed with a lance, and instantly aimed a blow at his adversary, who, finding himself severely wounded between the ribs, quitted his hold, and the Indian escaped. The adventurers soon heard in the city a great noise of drums and other instruments of war, mingled with the most terrific cries. Night was now approaching, and they retreated, carrying off their wounded commander in a hammock.

They passed the night on a neighboring mountain, and the next morning beheld an army of several thousand Indians marching out of the city in pursuit of them. Von Hutten was unable to fight, and resigned the command to his chief officer, Limpias. A battle now ensued, similar to the conflicts between the soldiers of Cortez and the Mexicans. The superior arms, valor and resolution of the Spaniards, enabled them to resist the attacks of an immense throng of assailants. Not one of them was killed; and the Omegas retreated, leaving the field of battle covered with heaps of their slain. But the Spaniards were now convinced of the desperate character of their undertaking, and unanimously agreed that the conquest of the Omegas could not be effected without a much stronger military force. They returned to the cacique who had acted as their guide, and here reposed themselves for some days. The general was cured of his wound, and, after obtaining from the cacique all the information necessary for rendering a second journey more rapid and easy, he took his departure for Coro, intending to organize a new expedition against the Omegas; but before he reached that place, he was assassinated at the instigation of a usurper named Carvajal, who by means of a forged commission had seized upon the government of Venezuela, and did not think himself secure in his usurpation till he had got rid of Von Hutten, who, it seems, had been appointed lieutenant general. His most faithful adherents were also assassinated with him. Such was the close of this memorable expedition, which occupied the space of four years.

Among the numerous adventurers who shared in the expeditions for the discovery of El Dorado, was Sir Walter Raleigh, an Englishman of the highest talent and character. A man of his chivalrous feelings could not but be filled with admiration at the courage and energy which had been exhibited by the Spaniards in the pursuit of this romantic and brilliant object. Having also a firm belief in the real existence of El Dorado, he determined to make an attempt to discover it himself. The multiplied failures of the Spaniards produced in him a strong conviction, not that they had wasted their strength in pursuit of a phantom, but only that they had

missed the right way. In classing Raleigh, however, with the knights-errant of El Dorado, we must, in justice to his memory, state, that his aims were of a far higher order than those of other adventurers. A part of his design was to conquer and colonize Guiana, and thus to extend the sphere of English industry and commerce.

In February, 1595, Raleigh sailed from Plymouth with five vessels and above a hundred soldiers. On arriving at Trinidad, he made prisoner of the governor, Berrio, who was himself preparing an expedition for El Dorado on a magnificent scale. From hence he sailed to the mouth of the Orinoco, the navigation of which was entirely unknown to the English, but which it was necessary to ascend in order to reach the grand object of the voyage. A hundred men embarked in boats, as the ships drew too much water to proceed up the stream. In these they continued to advance for a month, exposed to the open air, sometimes under a burning sun, sometimes amid torrents of rain, with no shelter, and no resting-place but the hard boards of their boats. Raleigh's account of their progress through the labyrinth formed by the numerous outlets of the great stream, of their alternate hopes and fears, wants and fortuitous supplies, the aspect of the country and its productions, the natives and their chiefs, and of their entrance at last into the grand channel of the magnificent Orinoco—is full of interest and variety, and occasionally presents descriptive passages of great beauty, joined also with traits of most extravagant credulity.

After ascending the river about one hundred and eighty miles, the rapid and terrific rise of its waters compelled them to descend. Raleigh firmly resolved soon to return, took formal possession of the country, and made the caciques swear allegiance to Queen Elizabeth. He returned to England at the end of the summer, and published an account of his voyage, containing, in addition to ascertained facts, many marvellous tales which he had picked up among the Indians. His determination to visit America again was inflexible, yet it was not till 1613 that he sailed on his new expedition. This was more disastrous than the former, but we have not room to give the particulars.

The belief in the existence of El Dorado could not be eradicated from the minds of the inhabitants in that quarter. So late as the year 1780, a wild Indian presented himself before the governor of Spanish Guiana, declaring that he came from the borders of Lake Parima. He was plied with questions, which he answered with as much perspicuity and precision as could be expected of a savage who spoke mostly by signs. He succeeded in making them understand that on the banks of that lake was a city whose inhabitants were civilized and well disciplined in war. He said much of the beauty of the buildings, the neatness of the streets, the regularity of the squares, and the riches of the people. The roofs of the houses were of gold or silver, and the high priest he said was powdered with gold dust. The Indian sketched on a table with a bit of charcoal a plan of the city. The governor was fully convinced of the truth of his representations, and engaged him to serve as a guide to the place.

A body of Spaniards immediately set out for the discovery. They traveled nearly five hundred leagues to the south, by the most difficult and often frightful paths. Hunger, the swamps, the rocks and the precipices, soon wore them out, and most of them died. When the remainder thought themselves within four or five days' journey of the city, their guide disap



peared in the night. This utterly dismayed them. They knew not where they were, and after wandering about for some time, all of them perished except Don Antonio Santos. The idea of disguising himself as an Indian occurred to him. He threw off his clothes, stained his body with *roco*, and introduced himself among the savages by means of the knowledge he possessed of many of their languages. He continued a long time among them, and at length fell into the hands of the Portuguese on the Rio Negro. After a long detention, they sent him home, and he died in Guiana in 1796.

It is impossible not to entertain a great curiosity as to the true origin of a story which led to such results as we have related. Men of intelligence, judgment, and acuteness, some of whom have resided many years in that country, have announced their serious opinion that the story of El Dorado is not destitute of foundation in reality. Unless we suppose the account of Von Hutten to be a complete fabrication, which does not appear warrantable, occurring as it does in the work of a respectable historian, we have evidence at least of the existence of a warlike nation, more civilized than the rest of the Indians, who had built on the borders of Lake Parima a large and handsome city. The eminent traveler Humboldt adopts another method of solving the mystery. While engaged in exploring the countries upon the upper Orinoco, he was naturally led to direct his attention to the origin of a tale of such celebrity which was still credited in that quarter. "When near the sources of the Orinoco," he says, "we heard of nothing but the proximity of El Dorado, the Lake Parima, and the *ruins of its capital!*" He attempts to account for the tales of El Dorado in a geological way. According to his conjecture, there may be islets and rocks of mica slate and talc within and around the lake, which, reflecting from their shining surfaces the rays of an ardent sun, appear to form a gorgeous city, whose temples and houses seem to be overlaid with gold and silver. He supposed that this scene was thus formed by the imagination into the gilded metropolis. Humboldt attempted to penetrate to this spot, but was hindered by the Guayacas, a tribe of Indian dwarfs.

The story of El Dorado remains, therefore, still involved in deep obscurity. We cannot, however, withhold our belief that it had some foundation in truth. The reader, perhaps, will be surprised to learn that the region which is pointed out as the locality of this celebrated place has never, to this day, been traversed by a European. Its great distance from the sea, and the impassable wilderness that surrounds it, have repelled the arms of the conqueror from its borders, while the bravery or ferocity of its inhabitants forbids every traveler to approach it. Is it improbable that a great city, or the ruins of one, should exist in this unknown territory? A few years ago, who suspected that the plains and forests of Central America and Yucatan contained those immense and magnificent ruins brought to light by the researches of modern travelers? Cortez, in his march to Mexico, passed within ten miles of the great city of Copan, without hearing of it.

Mr. Stephens does not hesitate to avow his opinion that aboriginal cities may yet be found, in the unexplored regions of South America, peopled by unconquered natives. The probability of such facts is still greater in respect to a district more remote from European establishments, and which possesses positive traditions attesting their existence.

## POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM.

**P**OMPEII was an ancient city of Campania, formerly celebrated for its commerce, and situated twelve miles to the south-east of the present site of Naples. It was destroyed by an earthquake, A. D. 63, and, together with Herculaneum, was buried by a stream of lava and showers of ashes during an eruption of Mount Vesuvius fourteen years later. It remained concealed for nearly seventeen hundred years. In the year 1738, however, the Spaniards having conquered the country, Charles of Spain took up his residence at Portici, a village built upon the spot of ancient Herculaneum. A well being here dug to a considerable depth, traces of buildings were found, and excavations being pushed to a greater depth, the theatre of Herculaneum was laid open, and an impetus given to further discoveries. In 1750, Pompeii was explored. The bed of ashes was about eighteen feet in depth. The ruins of an extensive amphitheatre and of many handsome buildings were discovered. Twenty-seven female skeletons were found near a door, and many ornaments for the neck and arms, silver and bronze vessels, and other works of art. It is supposed that most of the inhabitants had time to save themselves by flight.

Two-thirds of the town are still covered, but it is estimated that it was originally three-fourths of a mile in length by nearly half a mile in breadth. The walls are from eighteen to twenty feet high, and contained many main gates, of which six have been uncovered. Twenty streets, fifteen feet wide, paved with lava, and having foot-ways three feet broad, have also been excavated. The houses are joined together, and have generally only two stories, with terraces for roofs. The fronts are often shops, with inscriptions, frescos, and ornaments of every kind. The principal rooms are in the rear; in the center is a court, which often contains a marble fountain. A forum, surrounded with handsome buildings, two theatres, an arena, temples, baths, fountains, statues, urns, utensils of all sorts, &c., have been discovered. Most of the objects of curiosity have been deposited in the museum of Portici and Naples; among them are a great number of manuscripts.

The history of some of these manuscripts is curious; one thousand six hundred and ninety-six were discovered at once in Herculaneum, and the expectations of antiquarians were raised very high as regards the discoveries to be made from them. They have, however, resisted almost every attempt made to unroll them; and, in 1819, only four hundred and seven out of the whole number had yielded. They are of a cylindrical form, having the appearance of tobacco rolls, and are very much charred by the action of the hot ashes. Out of these four hundred and seven only eighty-eight are legible; twenty-four others had been sent as presents to foreign princes, and only about eighty of the remaining one thousand two hundred and sixty-five presented any chance of successful unrolling or deciphering them. The contents of those which were legible have from time to time been published by learned societies.



The appearance of the buried cities is thus described by a late traveler: "We approached the disinterred city through an avenue of tombs rising above the road on either side. On approaching the gate, the first object to be noticed is an inn, such as country people still, in all the world, know well how to use, in order to lessen the expense of a visit to the city. At each side of the gate are sentry-boxes. Passing within, we found ourselves in one of the principal streets of the city. The houses are generally but one story high; the roofs have quite disappeared, crushed beneath the weight of the volcanic ashes; but the walls stand perfectly firm. The streets are very narrow, and the pavement, composed of pieces of lava, is deeply indented by the wheels of Pompeian carriages. Many of the houses are built of lava, the fiery stream of some ancient eruption, long before the brief records of man began to note the awful voice and action of Vesuvius! Pompeii was destroyed, not by lava, but by ashes—which accounts for the admirable preservation of the objects found there. The calamity was not so sudden, but that most of the inhabitants were able to save themselves by flight: hence very few human skeletons have been found. From the absence in many of the houses of things that must have been in them at the moment of the disaster, it is supposed that the people seized on what was most precious and carried it with them; or perhaps returned after the work of ruin was done and recovered what they could by excavation. The ashy tempest which buried this fair city raged for more than a week—swept quite across the Mediterranean, and left traces of itself on the distant shores of Egypt. Naples is just the same distance from the volcanic crater as Pompeii, and by a slight variation of circumstances might have been the buried city. Pompeii was once—perhaps at the time of the fatal eruption—on the sea, and its wharves were laved by the river Sarnus. The sea has long since retired to the distance of three-fourths of a mile, and the river has shrunk to a mere rivulet. After lying beneath ashes and cinders for sixteen hundred and seventy-six years, indications of its site were accidentally discovered. The excavations were begun in 1755. As yet, but one-third of the city has been disinterred; but this has revealed to us objects of the deepest interest—including eighty houses, an immense number of small shops, the public baths, two theatres, two halls of justice called *basilicas*, eight temples, the prison, the amphitheatre, and other public edifices, besides a great number of fountains and tombs.

"As you pass these silent and desolate streets, you are curious to learn all that is known of each house. You have your book and your map in your hand, and your guide at your side prepared to supply every deficiency by a ready memory, or by a readier invention. We are now in the street which leads from the gate, at which we entered, to the forum. On our left is a shop where drinks were sold; it has a marble counter, from which the passers-by could take their refreshment without going within. I fear they were in the habit of drinking hot punch in those days; for the circular prints of the hot glasses or other vessels are still distinctly visible on the smooth marble. On the right stands the house of a musician—on the left, again, a house which belonged to the vestals. Then comes the customhouse, the house of a surgeon, in which were found the instruments already described. In what I might call grocers' shops, the large earthen jars which contained wine, oil, and other articles, are still arranged around the wall. They were not movable, their contents being dipped up by ladles

of which the museum at Naples contains a great many specimens. A baker's shop arrested my attention. The front portion upon the street contained the articles made ready for use. Behind this was the mill for grinding the grain, in the form of a coffee-mill—consisting of a solid cone of very hard lava, fitted to a hollow cone of the same material; still further in the rear are the ovens: so that the whole establishment is quite comprehensive.

“The general plan of the houses is that of a quadrangle, built round an open court. Nearly all the rooms open into this court, at the centre of which is a marble fountain or cistern of water, and their only light is derived from the doors. From the small size of the apartments, it is supposed that hospitality could not have been one of the virtues of the Pompeians. They probably, as the inhabitants of those countries still do to a great extent, spent much of their time in the forum, in the public baths, at the theatres, or at the amphitheatre: here they saw everybody, conversed with everybody, and had therefore little motive for social entertainments at their own houses.

“The baths of Pompeii are both spacious and splendid. They are divided into three separate apartments: the first for servants and for fires, the second for the use of the women, and the third for the men. All these apartments are beautifully adorned with frescoes, and with figures wrought in stucco, both on the ceilings and on the walls. The basin for cold water is twelve feet and ten inches in diameter, and is lined throughout with white marble. A bronze window-frame was found in one of these baths, containing four beautiful panes of glass, which prove that this elegant comfort was not unknown to the Pompeians. Nor is this the only evidence of their skill in this kind of manufacture: for a large number of vases, bottles, and glasses of very elegant patterns, and beautiful material, have been brought to light. Some idea of the extent and magnificence of these baths may be formed from the fact that one thousand lamps were found here. Imagine these magnificent apartments with their bronzes, their marble statues, their relieves, all radiant with the light of a thousand lamps, and thronged with a gay and graceful people, in easy flowing costume, breathing the balmy air that was ever breathed without the gates of paradise—and you have a picture of one scene in Pompeian life.

“The fact that most of the inhabitants of this unfortunate city were allowed to make their escape from impending ruin, induces us to sympathize all the more tenderly with those ill-fated victims who perished. I have elsewhere alluded to the skeleton of Diomede, found in his splendid villa without the gate; a still more touching memorial found in the same villa, is believed to be the remains of the mistress of the house and her infant child. The wet ashes had enveloped the mother with the child locked in her arms. There was found every feature and limb of both, exquisitely rounded. Even the linen which had enveloped her young and beautiful form was found adhering to the mould. But nothing of that fair form remained except the skeleton mother clasping her skeleton child—a gold chain about her neck, and gold rings on her bony fingers!

“In the prison were found two skeletons with their bones still held by the shackles either of justice or tyranny! In the niche nearer the forum were found the remains of a soldier, his skeleton hand still grasping a lance!



"I could not content myself with a single visit, but returned to spend a second day among these unique and deeply interesting ruins. The excavations were going forward, and I had the pleasure of seeing the walls of a house laid bare, which had been hid from the light of day for eighteen hundred years. The frescoes on these walls were as bright as if the pencil had traced them but yesterday! The excavations are conducted by the government, and the premises are guarded night and day against depredations. Visitors are always attended by guides authorized by the government.

"To explore Herculaneum\* is a more difficult enterprise. It was buried beneath solid lava, or if beneath loose ashes and mud, these materials have consolidated into a gray rock, which makes excavation a slow and costly work. Nevertheless, a magnificent theatre, two temples, a portico, and several private houses, were excavated, but all except the theatre have been filled up, and the work is not now in progress. We descended into the theatre, and wandered through its dark spacious caverns—formed by excavation, for it was as completely filled with solid rock as a mould with molten lead. Many interesting and beautiful works of art were found here. The depth of our descent was between seventy and eighty feet below the surface of the rock. The modern town of Portici is built over the buried city; and while exploring the theatre, we could hear carriages rumbling along the street over our heads."

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## GUIZOT ON THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

**G**EORGE III. had been seated on the throne sixteen years, when, at three thousand miles from his capital, more than two millions of his subjects broke the ties which bound them to his throne, declared their independence, and undertook the foundation of the republic of the United States of America. After a contest of seven years, England was brought to recognize that independence, and to treat upon equal terms with the new state. Since that time sixty-seven years have elapsed, and, without any violent effort, without extraordinary events, by the mere development of their institutions and of the prosperity which is the natural attendant on peace, the United States have taken an honorable place among great nations. Never was so rapid an elevation, so little costly at its origin, or so little troubled in its progress.

It is not merely to the absence of any powerful rival, or to the boundless space open to their population, that the United States of America have owed this singular good fortune. The rapidity and the serenity of their rise to greatness are not the result of such fortunate accidents alone, but are to be attributed in a great degree to moral causes.

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\* Accidently discovered in 1726, in digging a well.

They rose into existence as a state under the banner of right and justice. In their case, too, the revolution from which their history dates was an act of defense. They claimed guarantees and asserted principles which were inscribed in their charters, and which the English parliament itself, though it now refused them to its subjects, had formerly triumphantly claimed and asserted in the mother country, with far greater violence and disorder than were occasioned by their resistance.

They did not, to speak strictly, attempt a revolution. Their enterprise was, no doubt, great and perilous. To achieve the conquest of their independence, they had to go through a war with a powerful enemy, and the construction of a central government in the place of the distant power whose yoke they threw off; but in their local institutions, and those which regarded the daily affairs of life, they had no revolution to make. Each of the colonies already enjoyed a free government as to its internal affairs, and when it became a state found little change necessary or desirable in the maxims and organization of power. There was no ancient order of things to fear, to hate, to destroy; the attachment to the ancient laws and manners, the affectionate reverence for the past, were, on the contrary, the general sentiments of the people. The colonial government, under the patronage of a distant monarchy, was easily transformed into a republican government under a federation of states.

Of all the forms or modes of government, the republican is unquestionably that to which the general and spontaneous assent of the country is the most indispensable. It is possible to conceive of an absolute monarchy founded by violence, and indeed such have existed; but a republic forced upon a nation, popular government established contrary to the instinct and the wishes of a people—this is a spectacle revolting equally to common sense and to justice. The Anglo-American colonies, in their transition into the republic of the United States, had no such difficulty to surmount; the republic was the full and free choice of the people; and in adopting that form of government they did but accomplish the national wish, and develop instead of overturning their existing institutions.

Nor was the perturbation greater in social than in political order. There were no conflicts between different classes, no violent transfer of influence from one order of men to another. Though the crown of England had still partisans in the colonies, their attachment had nothing to do with their position in the scale of society; indeed the wealthy and important families were in general the most firmly resolved on the conquest of their independence and the foundation of a new system. Under their direction the people acted, and the event was accomplished.

And if society underwent no revolution, so neither did men's minds. The philosophical ideas of the eighteenth century, its moral skepticism and its religious unbelief, had no doubt penetrated into the United States, and had obtained some circulation there; but the minds to which they found entrance were not entirely carried away by them; they did not take root there with their fundamental principles and their ultimate consequences: the moral gravity and the practical good sense of the old Puritans survived in most of the admirers of the French philosophers in America. The mass of the population remained profoundly Christian, as warmly attached to its creed as to its liberties.

While they rebelled against the authority of the King and the Parlia-



ment of England, they were submissive to the will of God and the precepts of the Gospel, and while struggling for independence, they were governed by the same faith which had conducted their ancestors to this land, where they laid the foundations of what was now rising into a state.

Three great men, Cromwell, William III., and Washington, stand forth in history as the heads and representatives of those supreme crises which have determined the fate of two great nations. For extent and energy of natural talents, Cromwell is perhaps the most remarkable of the three. His mind was wonderfully prompt, firm, just, supple, and inventive, and he possessed a vigor of character which no obstacle could daunt, no conflict weary; he pursued his designs with an ardor as exhaustless as his patience, whether through the slowest and most tortuous ways, or the most abrupt and daring. He excelled equally in winning men, and in ruling them by personal and familiar intercourse; he displayed equal ability in leading an army or a party. He had the instinct of popularity and the gift of authority, and he let loose factions with as much audacity as he subdued them. But born in the midst of a revolution, and raised to sovereign power by a succession of violent shocks, his genius was, from first to last, essentially revolutionary; and though he was taught by experience the necessity of order and government, he was incapable of either respecting or practicing the moral and permanent laws on which alone government can rest. Whether it was the fault of his nature, or the vice of his position, he wanted regularity and calmness in the exercise of power; had instant recourse to extreme measures, like a man constantly in dread of mortal dangers, and, by the violence of his remedies, perpetuated or even aggravated the evils which he sought to cure. The establishment of a government is a work which requires a more regular course, and one more conformable to the eternal laws of moral order. Cromwell was able to subjugate the revolution he had so largely contributed to make, but he did not succeed in establishing anything in the place of what he had destroyed.

Though less powerful than Cromwell by nature, William III. and Washington succeeded in the undertaking in which he failed; they fixed the destiny and founded the government of their country. Even in the midst of a revolution they never accepted nor practised a revolutionary policy; they never placed themselves in that fatal situation in which a man first uses anarchical violence as a stepping stone to power, and then despotic violence as a necessity entailed upon him by its possession. They were naturally placed, or they placed themselves in the regular ways and under the permanent conditions of government. William was an ambitious prince. It is puerile to believe that, up to the moment of the appeal sent to him from London in 1688, he had been insensible to the desire of ascending the throne of England, or ignorant of the schemes long going on to raise him to it. William followed the progress of these schemes step by step; he accepted no share in the means, but he did not repel the end; and, without directly encouraging, he protected its authors. His ambition was ennobled by the greatness and justice of the cause to which it was attached—the cause of religious liberty and of the balance of power in Europe. Never did man make a vast political design more exclusively the thought and purpose of his life than William did. The work which he accomplished on the field or in the cabinet was his passion; his own

aggrandizement was but the means to that end. Whatever were his views on the crown of England, he never attempted to realize them by violence and disorder. His mind was too well regulated not to know the incurable vice of such means, and too lofty to accept the yoke they impose. But when the career was opened to him by England herself, he did not suffer himself to be deterred from entering on it by the scruples of a private man; he wished his cause to triumph, and he wished to reap the honor of the triumph. Rare and glorious mixture of worldly ability and Christian faith, of personal ambition and devotion to public ends!

Washington had no ambition; his country wanted him to serve her, and he became great rather from a sense of duty than from taste; sometimes even with a painful effort. The trials of his public life were bitter to him; he preferred independence and repose to the exercise of power. But he accepted, without hesitation, the task which his country imposed on him, and in fulfilling it did nothing to diminish its burden. Born to govern, though he had no delight in governing, he told the American people what he believed to be true, and persisted in doing what he thought wise, with a firmness as unshaken as it was simple, and a sacrifice of popularity the more meritorious as it was not compensated by the pleasures of domination. The servant of an infant republic, in which the democratic spirit prevailed, he won the confidence of the people by maintaining its interests in opposition to its inclinations. While founding a new government, he practised that policy, at once modest and severe, measured and independent, which seems to belong only to the head of an aristocratic senate ruling over an ancient state. His success does equal honor to Washington and to his country.

Whether we consider the general destiny of nations, or the lives of the great men whom they have produced; whether we are treating of a monarchy or a republic, an aristocratic or a democratic society, we gather the same light from facts; we see that the same laws determine the ultimate success or failure of governments. The policy which preserves and maintains a state in its ancient security and customary order is also the only policy that can bring a revolution to a successful close and give stability to the institutions whose lasting excellence may justify it to succeeding ages.

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## THE CHINESE WALL,

**M**AY be considered as one of the greatest of human constructions. It extends 1,500 miles, and is said to have been built in five years, several millions of persons being employed upon it. It was built 205 years before Christ, under the Emperor Chi-hoang-ti, who is famous for having had all the Chinese books burned, and for founding the dynasty of Tsin.

The object of this wall was to keep off the Tartars, who were very troublesome to the Chinese, making frequent inroads upon them, for the purpose



of plunder. In order to build the wall, a conscription was made, and every third laboring man in the empire, was called upon and obliged to work, having no other pay than his food.

This wall is carried over mountains and across valleys and rivers. Where required it rests upon arches. At distances of about a hundred yards, it has high fortified towers, for defense; it has also gates, around which there are usually villages. In its strongest parts, and for hundreds of miles in extent, this wall is so thick as to allow six men on horseback to ride upon it. The structure consists of two parallel walls of solid masonry, filled in between with earth; the top is paved with stone.

In many places this wall was less lofty and of inferior thickness; and for many years it has in parts so fallen into decay as to be easily passed. The Tartar districts on the north of China having been long incorporated into that empire, it has been unnecessary to keep up this formidable bulwark.

Though this work displays no great mechanical skill, yet the vastness of the design and the great amount of labor required for its completion, give us a high idea of the patience and perseverance of the Chinese nation. They have other works, which serve to strengthen this view of their character. And it is proper to observe that these are, generally, of a useful nature. Egypt reared mighty monuments, but they were mere displays of vain and superstitious pomp; while the public works of China are designed to benefit the country.

Next to the Great Wall, which we have just described, the Grand Canal deserves to be mentioned. This furnishes an uninterrupted water communication from Pekin to the Yang-tse-kiang—a distance of 500 miles. By its connection with rivers, this canal affords an inland navigation of 1000 miles, with only a short interruption. The labor and ingenuity displayed in this work are the greater, as the Chinese are unacquainted with locks and other means by which a stationary supply of water may be insured.

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## THE CYPRESS SWAMPS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

**I**MMENSE swamps of Cypress constitute a vast portion of the inundated lands of the lower Mississippi and its tributaries. No prospect on earth can be more gloomy. Well may the cypress be esteemed a funereal tree. When the tree has shed its leaves, a cypress swamp, with its countless interlaced branches of a hoary gray, has an aspect of desolation and death. In summer, its fine, short and deep-green leaves invest these hoary branches with a drapery of crape. The water in which they grow is a vast deep level, two or three feet deep, still leaving the innumerable cypress “knees,” as they are called, or very elliptical trunks, resembling circular bee-hives, throwing their point above the waters. This water is covered with a thick coat of green matter, resembling green buff velvet. The mosquitoes swarm above the water in countless millions. A very

frequent adjunct to this horrible scenery is the moccasin snake, with its huge scaly body lying in folds upon the side of a cypress knee; and if you approach too near, lazy and reckless as he is, he throws the upper jaw of his huge mouth almost back to his neck, giving you ample warning of his ability and will to defend himself. I traveled (says Flint, from whom this sketch is derived) forty miles along a cypress swamp, and a considerable part of the way on the edge of it, in which the horse sunk at every step half way up to his knees. I was enveloped for the whole distance with a cloud of mosquitoes. Like the ancient Avernus, I do not remember to have seen a single bird in the whole distance, except the blue-jay. Nothing interrupted the deathlike silence but the hum of mosquitoes.

There cannot be well imagined another feature to the gloom of these vast and dismal forests, to finish this kind of landscape, more in keeping with the rest, than the long moss, or Spanish beard, and this funereal drapery attaches itself to the cypress in preference to any other tree. There is not that I know, an object in nature which produces such a number of sepulchral images as the view of the cypress forests; all shagged, dark, and enveloped in the festoons of moss. If you would inspire an inhabitant of New England, possessed of the customary portion of feeling, with the degree of homesickness that would strike to the heart, transfer him instantly from the hill and dale, the bracing air and varied scenery of the north to the cypress swamps of the south.

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## LEWIS WHETZEL, THE INDIAN HUNTER.

**A**MONG the earliest settlers in the region of Wheeling was a family of the name of Whetzel, the head of whom was of German origin. Although it was the hottest time of the Indian war, the old man was so rash as to build a cabin some distance from the fort, and moved his family into it. Dearly did he pay for his temerity.

His family consisted, beside himself and wife, of four sons—Martin, Lewis, Jacob and John,—respectively fifteen, thirteen, eleven and nine years of age. One day during the temporary absence of Martin, the oldest, and John, the youngest of the boys, the Indians made an attack upon the house, killed the old man, and carried off Lewis and Jacob captive. Mrs. Whetzel, in the confusion of the scene, escaped.

In the attack on their house, Lewis received a slight wound from a bullet, which carried away a small piece of the breast bone. The second night after the capture, the Indians encamped at the Biglick, twenty miles from the river, in what is now Ohio, and upon the waters of McMahon's Creek. The extreme youth of the boys induced the savages to neglect their usual precaution, of tying their prisoners at night. After the Indians had fallen asleep, Lewis whispered to his brother to get up, and they would make their way home. They started, and after going a few hundred yards, sat down on a log. "Well," said Lewis, "we can't go home barefooted. You stay



here, and I will go back and get a pair of moccasins for each of us." He did so, and returned. After sitting a little longer, he said; "Now, I will go back and get one of their guns, and we will then start." This was accordingly done. Young as they were, the boys were sufficiently expert with tracking paths in the woods to trace their course home, the moon enabling them, by her occasional glimpses, to find the trail which they had followed from the river. The Indians soon discovered their escape, and were heard by them hard on their heels. When the party in pursuit had almost overtaken them, they stepped aside in the bushes and let them pass, then fell into the rear and traveled on. On the return of their pursuers they did the same. They were then followed by two Indians on horseback, whom they evaded in the same manner. The next day they reached Wheeling in safety, crossing the river on a raft of their own making; Lewis, by this time, being nearly exhausted by his wound.

As the Whetzels grew up to be men—and the frontier boys, whenever large enough to handle a rifle, considered themselves as such—they took a solemn oath never to make peace with the Indians while they had strength to wield a tomahawk or sight to draw a bead. They esteemed revenge for the death of their father as the most precious and sacred portion of their inheritance.

Fully did they glut their vengeance. It was estimated that the four brothers, in the course of this long Indian war, took near one hundred scalps. War was the business of their lives. They would prowl through the Indian country singly, suffer all the fatigues of hasty marches in bad weather, or starvation, lying in close concealment, watching for a favorable opportunity to inflict death on the devoted victims who were so unfortunate as to come within their grasp. Notwithstanding their numberless exploits, they were no braggadocios. In truth, when they had killed an Indian they thought no more of it than a butcher would after killing a bullock. It was their trade.

Lewis Whetzel was perhaps the most indefatigable Indian hunter on the frontiers. During the wars, it is said that, disguised as an Indian, he killed in the region of the upper Ohio alone, 27 of the enemy, beside a number more on the Kentucky frontier. His person was in keeping with his character. He was about five feet nine inches in height, very broad shouldered and full breasted. His complexion was dark and swarthy as an Indian's, and his face pitted with the small pox. His hair, of which he was very careful, reached, when combed out, to the calves of his legs; his eyes were remarkably black, and, when excited—which was easily done—they would sparkle with such a vindictive glance as almost to curdle the blood of the beholder. He was a true friend, but a dangerous enemy. In mixed company, he was a man of few words, but, with his friends, a social and cheerful companion. Such was Lewis Whetzel, of whom we relate but a few anecdotes of his numberless adventures while pursuing his trade of blood.

About the year 1787, a party of Indians having committed some murders a few miles above Wheeling, some twenty men under Major M'Mahon, crossed the Ohio and followed their trail until they came to the Muskingum. The spies in advance then discovered the enemy to be vastly their superior; a council was called, and it was determined most prudent to retreat. Lewis Whetzel, who was present, took no part in the council, but, in the meanwhile, sat on a log with his rifle laid across his lap, and his tomahawk in his

hand. As the party set off on the retreat, Lewis stirred not from his seat. Major M'Mahon called to him, and inquired if he was going with them. Lewis answered, "that he was not; that he came out to hunt Indians; they were now found, and he was not going home like a fool with his finger in his mouth. He would take an Indian scalp or lose his own before he went home." All their arguments were without avail. His stubborn, unyielding disposition was such, that he never submitted himself to the control or advice of others; they were compelled to leave him, a solitary being in the midst of the thick forest, surrounded by vigilant enemies. Notwithstanding that this solitary individual appeared to rush into danger with the fury of a madman, yet in his disposition was displayed the cunning of a fox, as well as the boldness of the lion.

As soon as his friends had left him, he picked up his blanket, shouldered his rifle, and struck off into a different part of the country, in hope that fortune would place in his way some lone Indian. He kept aloof from the large streams, where large parties of the enemy generally encamped. He prowled through the woods with a noiseless tread and the keen glance of the eagle, that day, and the next until evening, when he discovered a smoke curling up among the bushes. He crept softly to the fire, and found two blankets and a small copper kettle in the camp. He instantly concluded that this was the camp of only two Indians, and that he could kill them both. He concealed himself in the thick brush, but in such a position that he could see the number and motions of the enemy. About sunset, one of the Indians came in, made up the fire, and went to cooking his supper. Shortly after, the other came in; they ate supper; after which they began to sing, and to amuse themselves by telling comic stories, at which they would burst into a roar of laughter. Singing and telling amusing stories, was the common practice of the white and red men when lying in their hunting camps. These poor fellows, when enjoying themselves in the utmost glee, little dreamed that the grim monster, Death, in the shape of Lewis Whetzel, was about stealing a march upon them. Lewis kept a keen watch on their maneuvers.

About nine or ten o'clock at night, one of the Indians wrapped his blanket around him, shouldered his rifle, took a chunk of fire in his hand, and left the camp, doubtless with the intention of going to watch a deer-lick. The fire and smoke would serve to keep off the gnats and mosquitoes. It is a remarkable fact, that deer are not alarmed at seeing fire, from the circumstance of seeing it so frequently in the fall and winter seasons, when the leaves and grass are dry, and the woods on fire. The absence of the Indian was the cause of vexation and disappointment to our hero, whose trap was so happily set, that he considered his game secure. He still indulged the hope, that the Indian might return to camp before day. In this he was disappointed. There were birds in the woods who chirped and chattered just before break of day; and like the cock, gave notice to the woodsman that day would soon appear. Lewis heard the wooded songster begin to chatter, and determined to delay no longer the work of death for the return of the Indian. He walked to the camp with a noiseless step, and found his victim buried in profound sleep, laying upon his side. He drew his butcher-knife, and with all his force, impelled by revenge, he sent the blade through his heart. He said the Indian gave a short quiver, and a convulsive motion, and laid still in death's eternal sleep. He then scalped him, and set off



for home. He arrived at Mingo Bottom only one day after his unsuccessful companions.

One more of Lewis Whetzel's tragedies, and we are done. He set off alone (as was frequently his custom) on an Indian hunt. It was late in the fall of the year, when the Indians were generally scattered in small parties on their hunting-grounds. He proceeded somewhere on the waters of the Muskingum River, and found a camp where four Indians had fixed their quarters for a winter hunt. The Indians, unsuspecting of any enemies prowling about them so late in the season, were completely off their guard, keeping neither watch nor sentinels. Whetzel at first hesitated about the propriety of attacking such overwhelming numbers. After some reflection, he concluded to trust to his usual good fortune, and began to meditate upon his plan of attack. He concluded their first sleep would be the fittest time for him to commence the work of death. About midnight, he thought their senses would be the most profoundly wrapped in sleep. He determined to walk to the camp, with his rifle in one hand, and his tomahawk in the other. If any of them should happen to be awake, he could shoot one, and then run off in the darkness of the night, and make his escape; should they be all asleep, he would make the onset with his trusty scalping-knife and tomahawk. Now, reader, imagine that you see him gliding through the darkness, with the silent, noiseless motion of an unearthly demon, seeking mischief, and the keen glance of the fabled Argus, and then you can imagine to your mind Whetzel's silent and stealthy approach upon his sleeping enemies. On he went to the camp, the fire burning dimly, but affording sufficient light to distinguish the forms of his sleeping victims. With calm intrepidity he stood a moment, reflecting on the best plan to make the desperate assault. He set his rifle against a tree, determined to use only his knife and tomahawk; as these would not miss their aim, if properly handled with a well strung arm. What a thrilling, horrible sight! See him leaning forward, with cool self-possession, and eager vengeance, as if he had been the minister of death; he stands a moment, then wielding his tomahawk, with the first blow leaves one of them in death's eternal sleep. As quick as lightning, and with tremendous yells, he applies the tomahawk to the second Indian's head, and sent his soul to the land of spirits. As the third was rising, confounded and confused with the unexpected attack, at two blows he fell lifeless to the ground. The fourth darted off, naked as he was, to the woods. Whetzel pursued him some distance, but finally he made his escape.

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## COMETS.

COMETS are light, vapory bodies, which move round the sun in orbits much less circular than those of the planets. Their orbits, in other words, are very long ellipses or ovals, having the sun near one of the ends. Comets usually have two parts, a body or nucleus, and a tail; but some have a body only. The body appears as a thin, vapory,

luminous mass, of globular form; it is so thin that, in some cases, the stars have been seen through it. The tail is a lighter or thinner luminous vapor, surrounding the body, and streaming far out from it, in one direction. A vacant space has been observed between the body and the enveloping matter of the tail; and it is equally remarkable that the tail has in some instances appeared less bright along the middle, immediately behind the nucleus, as if it were a stream which that nucleus had in some measure parted into two.

In ignorant ages, the sudden appearance of a comet in the sky never failed to occasion great alarm, both on account of its threatening appearance, and because it was considered as a sign that war, pestilence, or famine, was about to afflict mankind. Knowledge has dispelled all such fancies; but yet we are not well acquainted with the nature of comets.

Out of the great number—certainly not less than one thousand—which are supposed to exist, about one hundred and fifty have been made the subject of scientific observation. Instead of revolving, like the planets, nearly on the plane of the sun's equator, it is found that they approach his body from all parts of surrounding space. At first, they are seen slowly advancing, with a comparatively faint appearance. As they approach the sun, the motion becomes quicker, and at length they pass round him with very great rapidity, and at a comparatively small distance from his body. The comet of 1680 approached within one-sixth of his diameter. After passing, they are seen to emerge from his rays, with an immense increase to their former brilliancy and to the length of their tails. Their motion then becomes gradually slower, and their brilliancy diminishes, and at length they are lost in distance. It has been ascertained that their movement round the sun is in accordance with the same law which regulates the planetary movements, being always the quicker the nearer to his body, and the slower the more distant. In the remote parts of space their motions must be extremely slow.

Three comets have been observed to return, and their periods of revolution have been calculated. The most remarkable of these is one usually denominated Halley's comet, from the astronomer who first calculated its period. It revolves round the sun in about seventy-five years, its last appearance being at the close of 1835. Another, called Enke's comet, from Professor Enke, of Berlin, has been found to revolve once in 1207 days, or three and one-third years; but, in this case, the revolving body is found, at each successive approach to the sun, to be a little earlier than on the previous occasion, showing that its orbit is gradually lessening, so that it may be expected ultimately to fall into the sun. This fact has suggested that some part of that space through which the comet passes, must be occupied by a matter presenting some resistance to the movement of any denser body; and it is supposed that this matter may prove to be the same which has been described as constituting the zodiacal light. It is called a *resisting medium*; and future observations upon it are expected to be attended with results of a most important nature, seeing that, if there be such a matter extending beyond the orbit of the earth, that planet, in whose welfare we are so much interested, will be exposed to the same ultimate fate with Enke's comet.

The third, named Beila's comet, from M. Beila of Josephstadt, revolves round the sun in six and three-quarter years. It is very small and has no



tail. In 1832, this comet passed through the earth's path about a month before the arrival of our planet at the same point. If the earth had been a month earlier at that point, or the comet a month later in crossing it, the two bodies would have been brought together, and the earth, in all probability, would have instantly become unfit for the existence of the human family. Comets are often affected in their motions by the attraction of the planets. Jupiter, in particular, has been described by an astronomer as a perpetual stumbling-block in their way. In 1770, a comet got entangled amidst the satellites of that planet, and was thereby thrown out of its usual course, while the motions of the satellites were not in the least affected.

Comets often pass unobserved, in consequence of the part of the heavens in which they move being then under daylight. During a total eclipse of the sun, which happened sixty years before Christ, a large comet, not formerly seen, became visible, near the body of the obscured luminary. On many occasions, their smallness and distance render them visible only by the aid of the telescope. On other occasions, they are of vast size. The comet now called Halley's, at its appearance in 1456, covered a sixth part of the visible extent of the heavens, and was likened to a Turkish scimitar. The comet of 1680, which was observed by Sir Isaac Newton, had a tail calculated to be 123,000,000 of miles in length, a space greater than the distance of the earth from the sun. There was a comet in 1744 which had six tails, spread out like a fan across a large space in the heavens. The tails of comets usually stretch in the direction opposite to the sun, both in advancing and retiring, and with a slight wave at the outer extremity, as if that part experienced some resistance.

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## GALILEO AND HIS DAUGHTER.

**L**ITTLE more than two centuries since, on the 14th February, 1633, the astronomer, cited before the Inquisition, arrived at Rome, to answer the charge of heresy and blasphemy; while, a few years ago, in the brief but glorious day burst of Roman liberty, that very Inquisition was invaded by an exultant populace, and among its archives, full of memorials of martyred worth and heroic endurance, most eagerly, but in vain, was sought the record of the process against the great philosopher.

Galileo, on a former occasion, in reference to some of his scientific discoveries, had heard rumors of papal persecution, and as a cautious friend whispered to him the displeasing tidings, he had exclaimed, "Never will I barter the freedom of my intellect to one as liable to err as myself!" The time quickly arrived to test his courage and his resolution.

For a little while, we are informed, he was allowed to remain secluded in the palace of his friend Nicolini. In a few months, however, he was

removed to an apartment in the Exchequer of the Inquisition, still being permitted the attendance of his own servant, and many indulgences of which they had not decided to deprive him. On the twenty-first of June, of the same year, he appeared before the Holy Office. Through its gloomy walls and passages he passed to the tribunal. There was little here, as in other ecclesiastical buildings of Rome, to captivate the senses. The dark walls were unadorned with the creations of art; state and ceremony were the gloomy ushers to the chambers of intolerance. In silence and in mystery commenced the preparations. The familiars of the office advanced to the astronomer, and arrayed him in the penitential garment; and as he approached, with a slow and measured step, the tribunal, cardinals and prelates noiselessly assembled, and a dark circle of officers closed in, while, as if conscious that the battle had commenced in earnest between mind and power, all the pomp and splendor of the hierarchy of Rome—that system which had hitherto possessed a sway unlimited over the fears and opinions of mankind—was summoned up to increase the solemnity and significance of the judgment about to be pronounced against him.

To the tedious succession of technical proceedings, mocking justice by their very assumption of formality, it would be needless to refer. Solemnly, however, and by an authority which it was fatal to resist, Galileo was called on to renounce a truth which his whole life time had been consecrated to reveal and to maintain, "The motion through space of the Earth and Planets round the Sun."

Then, immediately, assuming he had nothing to allege, would attempt no resistance and offer no defense, came the sentence of the tribunal, banning and anathematizing all who held the doctrine, that the sun is the center of the system, as holding a tenet "philosophically false, and formally heretical."

And then they sentenced the old and infirm philosopher—this band of infallibles!—they bade him abjure and detest the said errors and heresies. They decreed his book to the flames, and they condemned him for life to the dungeons of the Inquisition, bidding him recite, "once a week, seven penitential psalms for the good of his soul!"

Did Galileo yield? Did he renounce that theory now affording such ample proof of the beauty and order of the universe; to whose very laws Kepler, the friend and cotemporary of the philosopher, was even then, though unconsciously, bearing evidence, by his wonderful theorem of velocities and distances, a problem which Newton afterwards confirmed and illustrated?

Did Galileo yield? He did. Broken by age and infirmity, importuned by friends more alarmed than himself, perhaps, at the terrors of that merciless tribunal, he signed his abjuration; yielded all his judges demanded; echoed their curse and ban, as their superstition or their hate required. There is a darker tale dimly hinted by those familiar with the technicalities of the Holy Office, that the terms, "Il rigoroso esame," during which Galileo is reported to have answered like a good Christian, officially announce the application of the torture.

Then occurred, perhaps scarcely an hour afterward, that remarkable episode in this man's history. As he rose from the ground on which, all kneeling, he had pronounced his abjuration, he gave a significant stamp, and whispered to a friend, "*E pur si muove!*" "Yet it does move"—



aye, and in spite of Inquisitions, has gone round—nay, the whole world of thought itself has moved, and having received an impulse from such minds, will revolve for ages in a glorious cycle for mankind! But the most touching incident of Galileo's story is yet to come.

After several years of confinement at Arcetri, the great astronomer was permitted to retire to Florence, upon the conditions that he should neither quit his house, nor receive the visits of his friends. They removed him from a prison to make a prison of his home. Alas! it was even worse than this.

Much as the greatest minds love fame, and struggle to obtain it, the proudest triumphs of genius and of science, the applause of the world itself, ever loud and obtrusive, is not to be compared to the low and gentle murmurs of pleasure and of pride from those we love. There was one being from whom Galileo had been accustomed to hear those consolations—his child, his gentle Maria Galilei. He had been otherwise a solitary indeed, and now more than ever so, when he was cut off from the communion of the greatest minds. To his lovely girl, his daughter, his heart clung with more than fondness. No wife of Pliny, perhaps, ever wafted to her husband with sweeter devotion the echoes of the applauding world without, greeting him she loved, than she did—his Maria Galilei. As he returned from prison, the way seemed tedious, the fleetest traveling all too slow, till he should once more fold her to his heart; and she, too, she anticipated meeting her father with a pleasure greater than ever before enjoyed, since he had now become a victim, sainted in her eyes, by the persecution he had suffered.

Short, indeed, was this happiness, if enjoyed at all. Within the month she died, and the home of Galileo was more than a prison—it was a desolate altar, on which the last and most precious of his household gods was shivered. And he died too, a few years afterward, that good old man!

But he had yielded—he was no martyr! Yes, indeed! But be it remembered, that if he possessed not the moral courage of a Huss, a Savonarola, or a Luther, he was not called to exercise it in so high a cause. The assertion and support of a religious truth is impressed with far deeper obligations than the advocacy of a scientific one, however well maintained by analogy, and confirmed by reason.

Still there was a deep devotional sentiment that pervaded the character of Galileo. Before he died, he became totally blind; yet he did not despair. Like Milton, he labored on for mankind—nay, pursued his scientific studies, invented mechanical substitutes for his loss of vision, to enable him still to pursue his arduous researches.

It is true he was shut out, like the elder Herschel, from the view of that glorious company, toward which his spirit had so often soared. Well might his friend Castelli say, in allusion to his infirmity, “that the noblest eyes were darkened which nature had ever made—eyes so privileged, and gifted with such rare qualities, that they might be said to have seen more than all those who had gone before him, and to have opened the eyes of all who were to come.” Galileo himself bore noble tribute to his friend, when he exclaimed,

“Never, never will I cease to use the senses which God hath left me; and though this heaven, this earth, this universe, be henceforth shrunk for

me into the narrow space which I myself fill, so it please God, it shall content me."

The malice of his enemies long survived his death. The partisans of Rome disputed his right to make a will. They denied him a monument, for which large sums had been subscribed.

A hundred years afterward, when a splendid memorial was about to be erected to his memory, the President of the Florentine Academy descended into his grave, and desecrated his remains, by bearing off, as *relics for a museum*, the thumb of his right hand, and one of his vertebræ! So the victims of the religious fury of one age become the martyrs of science in another!

And what is the moral of what we have written concerning Galileo? Is there no teaching that may instruct our own times, especially when we see how, through scorn and persecution, and this world's contumely, and through the gloom and shadows of ignorance and fear, the form and substance of mighty Truth rises, slowly and dimly, perchance at first, but grandly and majestically ere long? Little more than two hundred years have passed since the death of Galileo, but ample justice has been done to his memory. His name will be a watchword through all time, to urge men forward in the great cause of moral and intellectual progress; and the Tree of Knowledge, whose fruits were once on earth, plucked, perhaps, ere they were matured, has shot up with its golden branches into the skies, over which have radiated the smiles of a beneficent Providence, to cheer man onward in the career of virtue and intelligence.

"There is something," as Dr. Channing observes, "in the spirit of the present age, greater than the age itself. It is, the appearance of a new power in the world, the multitude of minds now pressing forward, in the great task of the moral and intellectual regeneration of mankind." And this cause must ultimately triumph. The energies and discoveries of men like Galileo, remote as their history becomes, have an undying influence.

The power of a great mind is like the attraction of a sun. It appears in the infinite bounds of space, far, far away, as a grain among other gold dust at the feet of the Eternal, or, at most, but as a luminous spot; and yet we know that its influence controls, and is necessary for, the order and arrangement of the nearest, as well as the remotest system. So in the moral and intellectual universe, from world to world, from star to star, the influence of one great mind extends, and we are drawn toward it by an unseen, but all-pervading affinity. Thus has the cause of moral and intellectual progress a sure guarantee of success. It has become a necessity, interwoven with the spirit of the age—a necessity impressed by every revelation of social evil, as well as proclaimed by every scientific discovery—gaining increased energy and power from the manifestation of every new wonder and mystery of nature—nay, from the building of every steam-ship, the laying down of every new line of railway.



## THE MAMMOTH CAVE, KENTUCKY.

**T**HIS wonderful cavern, which is a world within itself, embracing in its submundane regions, seas, mountains, lakes and rivers, is situated in the interior of Kentucky, in a wild, broken region, but highly picturesque. It is approached through, as it were, a natural bower of trees, growing on either side of a beautiful and romantic dell. At the termination is the great portal to this nether world, and you descend into it by some winding stone steps; then, if you choose, you can penetrate miles into the heart of the earth. No impure air exists in any part of the cave; on the contrary, the air is delightful and exhilarating, and highly recommended for disease of the lungs. There are a number of small houses built within to accommodate consumptive persons, and numbers have resided there continually, finding great benefit. The temperature is uniformly the same—winter and summer being always 59 deg. Fahrenheit. Combustion is perfect in all parts, and decomposition is unobservable. Reptiles of no description have ever been seen within the cave. The loudest peal of thunder cannot be heard a quarter of a mile within, and the only sound heard is the roar of waterfalls, of which there are seven or eight.

The entire cave, as far as it is explored, (the end is not found yet,) contains two hundred or more avenues, nearly fifty domes, twenty-two pits, and three rivers. Many of the avenues contain large and magnificent stalagmite columns, extending from the floor to the ceiling, and some of very grotesque and fanciful shape. Graceful stalactites may likewise be seen pendant from the ceilings, as uniform and regular as if they were cut by the hand of man.

To the admirer of the wonderful and sublime, we say, go visit this the greatest of the Almighty's subterranean works! No description, however well written, can give the least idea of it. No other cave can be compared with it in extent and grandeur; in its serene and solemn majesty it stands alone.

Among the wonders of this cave is a species of fish without eyes, found in one of the rivers. A late traveler says, "What shall I say of this wonder of nature as a whole? I had heard and read descriptions of it, long since; but the half, the quarter, was not told. Its vastness, its lofty arches, its immense reach into the bosom of the solid earth, fill me with astonishment. It is—like Mount Blanc, Chimborazo, and the falls of Niagara—one of God's mightiest works. Shall I compare it with anything of a similar description which you have on the other side the Atlantic? with the Grotto of Neptune, or that of the Sibyl, at Tivoli, or any of Virgil's poetic Italian machinery? No comparison can be instituted. I speak, as you are aware, from personal knowledge. You, seated on the opposite bank of the Arno, have seen me clamber up, from the noisy waters below, to the entrance of the far-famed Grotto of Neptune, which I leisurely explored. In point of capaciousness, it has little more to boast of than the cellar of a large hotel, and, like that, was, as I think, excavated by human

hands. That of the Tiburtine Sibyl is still more limited in its dimensions. Indeed, every cavern which I have seen, if placed alongside of this, would dwindle into insignificance."

The same writer says, "I cannot refrain from giving you an account of an incident that happened in this cave last spring. A wedding party went to the cave to spend the honeymoon. While there, they went to visit those beautiful portions of the cave which lie beyond the river 'Jordan.' In order to do this, a person has to sail down the river nearly a mile before reaching the avenue which leads off from the river on the opposite side—for there is no shore or landing-place between the point above on this side, where you come to the river, and that below on the other; for the river fills the whole width of one avenue of the cave, and is several feet deep where the side walls descend into the water. This party had descended the river, visited the cave beyond, and had again embarked on the water for their return homewards. After they had ascended the river about half way, some of the party, who were in high glee, got into a romp and overturned the boat. Their lights were all extinguished, their matches wet, the boat filled with water and sunk immediately; and *there they were*, in 'the blackness of darkness,' up to their chins in water. No doubt, they would all have been lost, had it not been for the guide's great presence of mind. He charged them to remain perfectly still; for, if they moved a single step, they might get out of their depth in water; and swimming would not avail them, for they could not see where to swim to. He knew that, if they could bear the coldness of the water any length of time, they would be safe; for another guide would be sent from the cave house, to see what had become of them. And in this perilous condition, up to their mouths in water, in the midst of darkness 'more than night,' *four miles under ground*, they remained for upwards of five hours; at the end of which time another guide came to their relief. Matthew, or Mat, the guide who rescued them, told me that 'when he got to where they were, his fellow-guide, Stephen, (the Columbus of the cave,) was swimming round the rest of the party, cheering them, and directing his movements, while swimming, by the sound of their voices, which were raised, one and all, in prayer and supplication for deliverance!'"

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## PURCHASE OF LOUISIANA.

**L**OUISIANA was ceded to Spain in 1763, and by a secret article in the treaty of St. Ildefonso, concluded in 1800, that power ceded it back to France. Napoleon, however, wished to keep this cession secret until he should have—as he hoped to do—reduced St. Domingo to submission. Failing in this, he was rendered indifferent to his new acquisition. In January, 1803, he sent out Laussat as prefect of the colony, which was the first intimation that the inhabitants had of the transfer, which gave them great joy.



On being informed of this retrocession, President Jefferson had dispatched instructions to Robert Livingston, the American minister at Paris, to represent to the First Consul that the occupation of New Orleans by France would endanger the friendly relations between the two nations, and, perhaps, even oblige the United States to make common cause with England; as the possession of this city by the former, by giving her the command of the Mississippi, the only outlet to the produce of the Western States, and also of the Gulf of Mexico, so important to American commerce, would render it almost certain that the conflicting interests of the two nations would lead to an open rupture. Mr. Livingston was therefore instructed not only to insist upon the free navigation of the Mississippi, but to negotiate for the acquisition of New Orleans itself and the surrounding territory; and Mr. Monroe was appointed with full powers to assist him in the negotiation.

Bonaparte, who always acted promptly, soon came to the conclusion that what he could not defend, he had better dispose of on the best terms; but before deciding, he summoned two of his ministers in council, on the 10th of April, 1803, and thus addressed them:

"I am fully sensible of the value of Louisiana, and it was my wish to repair the error of the French diplomatists who abandoned it in 1763. I have scarcely recovered it before I run the risk of losing it; but if I am obliged to give it up, it shall hereafter cost more to those who force me to part with it than to those to whom I yield it. The English have despoiled France of all her northern possessions in America, and now they covet those of the South. I am determined that they shall not have the Mississippi. Although Louisiana is but a trifle compared to their vast possessions in other parts of the globe, yet, judging from the vexation they have manifested on seeing it return to the power of France, I am certain that their first object will be to gain possession of it. They will probably commence the war in that quarter. They have twenty vessels in the Gulf of Mexico, and our affairs in St. Domingo are daily getting worse since the death of Le Clerc. The conquest of Louisiana might be easily made, and I have not a moment to lose in putting it out of their reach. I am not sure but what they have already begun an attack upon it. Such a measure would be in accordance with their habits; and in their place I should not wait. I am inclined, in order to deprive them of all prospect of ever possessing it, to cede it to the United States. Indeed, I can hardly say that I cede it, for I do not yet possess it; and if I wait but a short time, my enemies may leave me nothing but an empty title to grant to the Republic I wish to conciliate. They only ask for one city of Louisiana, but I consider the whole colony as lost; and I believe that in the hands of this rising power it will be more useful to the political, and even the commercial interests of France, than if I should attempt to retain it. Let me have both your opinions on the subject."

One of the ministers, Barbe Marbois, fully approved of the cession, but the other opposed it. They debated the matter for a long time, and Bonaparte concluded the conference without making his determination known. The next day, however, he sent for Marbois, and said to him:

"The season for deliberation is over: I have determined to renounce Louisiana. I shall give up not only New Orleans, but the whole colony, without reservation. That I do not undervalue Louisiana I have sufficiently proved, as the object of my first treaty with Spain was to recover it. But, though I regret parting with it, I am convinced it would be folly to persist

in trying to keep it. I commission you, therefore, to negotiate this affair with the envoys of the United States. Do not wait the arrival of Mr. Monroe, but go this very day and confer with Mr. Livingston. Remember, however, that I need ample funds for carrying on the war, and I do not wish to commence it by levying new taxes. For the last century France and Spain have incurred great expense in the improvement of Louisiana, for which her trade has never indemnified them. Large sums have been advanced to different companies, which have never returned to the treasury. It is fair that I should require repayment for these. Were I to regulate my demands by the importance of this territory to the United States, they would be unbounded; but, being obliged to part with it, I shall be moderate in my terms. Still, remember, I must have fifty millions of francs, and I will not consent to take less. I would rather make some desperate effort to preserve this fine country."

The negotiations commenced that very day. Mr. Monroe arrived at Paris on the 12th of April, and the two representatives of the United States, after holding a private conference, announced that they were ready to treat for the cession of the entire territory, which at first Mr. Livingston had hesitated to do, believing the proposal of the First Consul to be only a device to gain time.

On the 30th of April, 1803, the treaty was signed. The United States were to pay fifteen million dollars for their new acquisition, and be indemnified for some illegal captures; while it was agreed that the vessels and merchandise of France and Spain should be admitted into all the ports of Louisiana free of duty for twelve years.

Bonaparte stipulated in favor of Louisiana that it should as soon as possible be incorporated into the Union, and that its inhabitants should enjoy the same rights, privileges, and immunities as other citizens of the United States; and the third article of the treaty, securing to them these benefits, was drawn up by the First Consul himself, who presented it to the plenipotentiaries with these words:

"Make it known to the people of Louisiana that we regret to part with them; that we have stipulated for all the advantages they could desire; and that France, in giving them up, has ensured to them the greatest of all. They could never have prospered under any European government as they will when they become independent. But, while they enjoy the privileges of liberty, let them ever remember that they are French, and preserve for their mother country that affection which a common origin inspires."

The completion of this important transaction gave equal satisfaction to both parties. "I consider," said Livingston, "that from this day the United States takes rank with the first powers of Europe, and now she has entirely escaped from the power of England;" and Bonaparte expressed a similar sentiment in these words: "By this cession of territory I have secured the power of the United States, and given to England a maritime rival, who at some future time will humble her pride." These words appeared prophetic when the troops of Britain, a few years after, met so signal an overthrow on the plains of Louisiana.

The boundaries of the colony had never been clearly defined, and one of Bonaparte's ministers drew his attention to this obscurity. "No matter," said he, "if there was no uncertainty, it would, perhaps, be good policy to leave some;" and, in fact, the Americans interpreting to their own advan-



tage this uncertainty, some few years after seized upon the extensive territory of Baton Rouge, which was in dispute between them and the Spaniards.

On the 30th of November, 1803, Laussat took possession of the country, when Casa Calvo and Salcedo, the Spanish commissioners, presented to him the keys of the city, over which the tri-colored flag floated but for the short space of twenty days. The colony had been under the rule of Spain for a little more than thirty-four years.

On the 20th of December, in the same year, General Wilkinson and Clariborne, who were jointly commissioned to take possession of the country for the United States, made their entry into New Orleans at the head of the American troops. Laussat gave up his command, and the star-spangled banner supplanted the tri-colored flag of France.

The purchase of Louisiana, which gave the United States their sole claim to the vast territory west of the Mississippi, extending on the north through Oregon to the Pacific, and further south to the Mexican dominions, was the most important event to the Nation which has occurred in this century. From that moment, the interests of the whole people of the Mississippi valley became as one, and its vast natural resources began to be rapidly developed. So great are they, that it is destined to become the center of American power—"the mistress of the world."

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## FALLS OF NIAGARA.

**C**ATARACTS or Falls are formed by the descent of rivers over rocks, from a higher to a lower level. That of Niagara is not the highest in the world, but it is remarkable for forcing over, in its mighty current, a larger body of water than any other. The highest waterfall of Europe is that of Gavarnie in France, which is 1,350 feet; the highest in Asia is that of Garispa, in Hindostan, 1,000 feet; the highest in America is that of Tequendama, in New Grenada, 580 feet. The Falls of Niagara are but about 170 feet in height; but the immense body of water that rushes, in an almost undivided mass, down this distance, produces upon the beholder the most intense wonder, and furnishes one of the most sublime objects to be found in the world.

Such is the mighty scale on which this cataract is constructed, that a person does not at first sight feel its full grandeur; but, by degrees, it seems to increase in size; its awful front appears to rise higher, its prodigious volume to expand, and its whole aspect to assume a more fearful and sublime physiognomy.

One characteristic of this great natural wonder is its steadiness. It flows on, and on, with a ceaseless, patient, unvarying tide. It pauses not to take breath; it goes on, during the still watches of the night; it is at work at sunrise and at sunset. It does not shrink or wax faint in the drought of summer, nor does the freshet of spring disturb its equable yet

sublime current. The chains of winter cannot bind it; it pauses not amid the pealing thunder or the raging of the equinoctial tempest; it heeds not the presence or absence of man; it takes no note of time, save that it

"Notches its centuries in the eternal rocks!"

Emblem of God and eternity, it rolls on, speaking only of Him who made it. Nor is sublimity the only characteristic of this greatest of waterfalls. There are traits of beauty, which seem even to heighten the effect of its grandeur. The rainbow, ever playing in sunshine over its awful front, and seeming indifferent to the boiling whirlpool beneath; the tide of many-colored gems into which the spray often seems converted, as it plunges over the rocks; the heaps of foam, white as wool, dancing on the billows that rush away from the foot of the fall; and more than all, an aspect of tranquillity, of repose, which settles upon the whole scene, when viewed at a little distance, are all incidents which blend in the majestic picture imprinted on the memory by this stupendous yet lovely work of nature's God.

The Falls of Niagara have been the frequent theme of poetry, but the following lines by Brainard are deemed the finest that have been produced upon the subject:

"The thoughts are strange that crowd into my brain,  
While I look upward to thee. It would seem  
As if God poured thee from his 'hollow hand,'  
And hung his bow upon thine awful front;  
And spoke in that loud voice which seemed to him  
Who dwelt in Patmos for his Saviour's sake,  
'The sound of many waters;' and had bade  
Thy flood to chronicle the ages back,  
And notch his centuries in the eternal rocks!"

"Deep calleth unto deep, and what are we,  
That hear the question of that voice sublime?  
O! what are all the notes that ever rung  
From war's vain trumpet, by thy thundering side!  
Yea, what is all the riot man can make  
In his short life, to thy unceasing roar!  
And yet, bold babbler, what art thou to Him,  
Who drowned a world, and heaped the waters far  
Above its loftiest mountains?—a light wave,  
That breaks, and whispers of its Maker's might!"

## BURR'S CONSPIRACY.

**I**N 1805, Aaron Burr first made his appearance in the West. With a conscience racked with remorse for the murder of Hamilton in a duel, and politically disgraced by his quarrel with President Jefferson, he sought the West to bury his anguish and disgrace in active schemes of unhallowed ambition. At this time, the affairs of the United States with Spain, were in an embarrassing state. In the spring of 1806, their forces advanced to the Sabine, and Gen. Wilkinson, commander of the United States troops in Louisiana, had orders to repel them if they should cross the river. At this time, Burr again appeared in the West, passing most of his



time at Blannerhasset's Island, but being seen in Kentucky and Tennessee His plans appear to have been threefold:—

First.—To ascertain the sentiments of the people of the West upon the subject of a separation from the Atlantic States, and, if favorable, to have attempted to erect a separate republic in the West, of which he was to be the head, and New Orleans the capital.

Secondly.—To raise a force and make arrangements for a private expedition against Mexico and the Spanish provinces, in the event of a war between the United States and Spain, which, at that time, seemed inevitable.

Thirdly.—In the event of the failure of both of these measures, to purchase a tract of land of Baron Bastrop, lying on the Washita River, in Louisiana, upon which he contemplated the establishment of a colony of wealthy and intelligent individuals, where he might rear around him a society remarkable for its elegance and refinement.

The unsettled relations with Spain presented a specious cloak to his enterprise in that quarter, and enabled him to give to each person addressed, such representations of his plans as best suited their character. To the daring youth of the West, desirous of military adventure, he could represent it as an expedition against a nation with whom the United States would shortly be at war,—that government would *connive* at it, but could not openly countenance it until hostilities actually commenced. There is but little doubt, but that many concurred in the enterprise without being aware of its treasonable character, while to others, all his schemes were exposed in their full deformity.

In the prosecution of his object, he applied himself with all his great powers of address, to any one who would be useful to him in his schemes. Among a large number of persons whom he enlisted, was Herman Blannerhasset, an Irish gentleman of wealth, residing on a beautiful island on the Ohio, twelve miles below Marietta. He molded him to his purpose, and obtained a complete command of his ample fortune.

The scheme of separation from the Atlantic States had been too much agitated in Kentucky, not to have left some materials for Burr to rally upon, and he neglected no opportunity to work upon the fragments of the old party. Not only in that State, but in every State and Territory in the West, from western Pennsylvania down to Louisiana, he gained a large number of adherents to the cause, among whom were some of the leading men of the country.

During the summer of 1806, the public mind in the West became agitated by rumors of secret expeditions and conspiracies, in which Burr and others were implicated, but all were wrapped in mystery and doubt. In the following November, Burr was seized at Lexington, Kentucky, and arraigned before the United States Court, to answer to a charge of high misdemeanor, in organizing a military expedition against a power with whom the United States were at peace. He was defended by the Hon. Henry Clay, on his first assuring him upon *his honor*, that he was engaged in no design contrary to the laws and peace of the country. The arrest was premature, and owing to the absence of important witnesses, he was acquitted. Yet, at that very time, an armed force in his service, occupied Blannerhasset's Island, and a large number of boats had been built on the Muskingum, and were then at Marietta, laden with provisions and military stores.

All danger of collision with Spain, had, ere this, been removed; but





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Burr, notwithstanding, adhered to his original design. President Jefferson, who had been fully kept advised by Gen. Wilkinson of Burr's movements, on the 25th of November, issued a proclamation denouncing the enterprise, and warning the West against it. This proclamation reached Ohio about the 1st of December, and soon after, by the orders of the governor of that State, the boats of Burr on the Muskingum, were seized. At the same time, the Virginia militia, of Wood County, lying opposite Blannerhasset's Island, took possession of the mansion of Blannerhasset. The owner, however, succeeded in effecting his escape down the Ohio, in one of his boats. Burr, in the meanwhile, had gone to Nashville; but before the proclamation had reached Tennessee, had descended the Cumberland, with two boats laden with provisions and a few adherents. At the mouth of that river, his forces congregated, and from thence they proceeded down the Mississippi, in a flotilla of eleven boats.

His adherents at this time had dwindled to but a comparatively small number. A part of his original confederates had been engaged simply as settlers of Bastrop's lands, but the greater number were engaged under the express assurance, that the projected enterprise was against Mexico, and secretly authorized by government. Many expressly enlisted in the name of the United States. The proclamation, as it reached the different parts of the West, undeceived both of these classes, and, of course, drew them off from any participation in the enterprise.

The West had now become thoroughly aroused to the true nature of the conspiracy. The authorities of the different States and Territories on the Ohio and Mississippi, had ordered out the Militia for the apprehension of the parties; and from Pittsburgh to the Gulf, the most rigid measures had been adopted, to give an effectual check to the further progress of the expedition.

Gen. Wilkinson, who commanded the United States forces in the West, had been Burr's confidant in his schemes. Burr and his principal confederates, carried on a continual correspondence with that officer in cypher, during the formation and execution of his plans. What Wilkinson's original intentions were, is a matter of conjecture; but it is certain that he acted treacherously toward Burr, as during this time, he informed Jefferson of all the movements of the conspirators, and became, at length, the most active person in arresting those who were supposed to have been connected with it. It is probable, that he first favored Burr from ambitious motives, determining to be governed by circumstances in his ulterior movements. If war should occur with Spain, then, as a military man, there would be an opportunity, in connection with Burr, to win distinction in a campaign against Mexico; but if not, there was a chance of his gaining eclat by exposing a conspiracy dangerous to the welfare of his country.

Confident of the aid of Wilkinson, and of the forces under his command, Burr continued his exertions, notwithstanding all prospects of a war with Spain had ceased, and in spite of the proclamation of the President, and the efforts of the Governors of the various States and Territories of the West, to deter him.

In January (1807), the flotilla of Burr had arrived at Bayou Pierre, on the Lower Mississippi. He was there seized by the order of Cowles Mead, the acting Governor of Mississippi, and conducted to the town of Washington. Burr, shortly after, managed to escape from custody, and a reward of



two thousand dollars was offered for his apprehension. In the meantime, several arrests of the supposed accomplices of Burr, were made at Fort Adams and New Orleans. Among these, were Bollman (the celebrated deliverer of Lafayette,) Ogden, Swartwout, Dayton, Smith, Alexander and Gen. Adair, against whom the most rigid and unjustifiable authority was exercised by Gen. Wilkinson, in many cases upon bare suspicion.

Late at night, about the 1st of February, a man in the garb of a boatman, with a single companion, arrived at the door of a small log tavern, in the backwoods of Alabama, and inquired the way to a Col. Hinson's, who resided in the neighborhood. Col. Nicholas Perkins observed by the light of the fire, that the stranger, although coarsely dressed, possessed a countenance of unusual intelligence, and an eye of sparkling brilliancy. The tidy boot, which his vanity could not surrender with his other articles of finer clothing, attracted Perkins' attention, and led him truly to conclude, that the mysterious stranger was none other than the famous Col. Burr, described in the proclamation of the Governor.

That night Perkins started for Fort Stoddart, on the Tombigbee, and communicated his suspicions to the late Gen. Edmund P. Gaines, then the lieutenant in command. The next day, accompanied by Perkins and a file of mounted soldiers, Gaines started in pursuit of Burr, and arrested him on his journey. Burr attempted to intimidate Gaines; but the resolute young officer was firm, and told him he must accompany him to his quarters, where he would be treated with all the respect due the ex-Vice President of the United States.

About three weeks after, Gaines sent Burr a prisoner to Richmond, with a sufficient guard, the command of which was given to Perkins. They were all men whom Perkins had selected, and upon whom he could rely in every emergency. He took them aside, and obtained the most solemn pledges, that upon the whole route they would hold no interviews with Burr, nor suffer him to escape alive. Perkins knew the fascinations of Burr, and he feared his familiarity with his men,—indeed, he feared the same influences upon himself.

Each man carried provisions for himself, and some for the prisoner. They were all well mounted and armed. On the last of February, they set out on their long and perilous journey. To what an extremity was Burr now reduced! In the boundless wilds of Alabama, with none to hold converse; surrounded by a guard to whom he dared not speak; a prisoner of the United States, for whose liberties he had fought; his fortune swept away; the magnificent scheme for the conquest of Mexico broken up; slandered and hunted down from one end of the Union to another. These were considerations to crush an ordinary man; but his was no common mind; and the characteristic fortitude and determination which had ever marked his course, still sustained him in the darkest hour.

In their journey through Alabama, they always slept in the woods, and after a hastily prepared breakfast, it was their custom to again remount and march on in gloomy silence. Burr was a splendid rider, and in his rough garb, he bestrode his horse as elegantly, and his large dark eyes flashed as brightly, as though he were at the head of his New York regiment. He was always a hardy traveler, and though wet for hours together, with cold and drizzling rains, riding forty miles a day, and at night stretched on a pallet upon the ground, he never uttered one word of complaint.

A few miles beyond Fort Wilkinson, they were, for the first time, sheltered under a roof,—a tavern kept by one Bevin. While they were seated around the fire awaiting breakfast, the inquisitive host inquired “if the traitor Burr had been taken?” “Was he not a bad man?” “Wasn’t every body afraid of him?” Perkins and his party were very much annoyed, and made no reply. Burr was sitting in the corner by the fire, with his head down; and after listening to the inquisitiveness of Bevin until he could endure it no longer, he raised himself up, and planting his fiery eyes upon him, said:—

“*I am Aaron Burr; what is it you want with me?*”

Bevin, struck with his appearance,—the keenness of his look, and the solemnity and dignity of his manner, stood aghast, and trembled like a leaf. He uttered not another word while the guard remained at his house.

When they reached the confines of South Carolina, Perkins watched Burr more closely than ever, for his son-in-law, Colonel, afterward Governor Alston, a gentleman of talents and influence, resided in this State. He was obliged, in a great measure, to avoid the towns, for fear of a rescue. Before entering the town of Chester, in that State, the party halted, and surrounding Burr, proceeded on, and passed near a tavern where many persons were standing; while music and dancing were heard in the house. Burr conceived it a favorable opportunity for escape, and suddenly dismounting, exclaimed:

“*I am Aaron Burr, under military arrest, and claim protection from the civil authorities!*”

Perkins leaped from his horse, with several of his men, and ordered him to remount.

“*I will not!*” replied Burr.

Not wishing to shoot him, Perkins threw down his pistols, and being a man of prodigious strength, and the prisoner a small man, seized him around the waist, and placed him in the saddle, as though he were a child. Thomas Malone, one of the guard, caught the reins of the bridle, slipped them over the horse’s head, and led him rapidly on. The astonished citizens, when Burr dismounted, and the guards cocked their pistols, ran within the piazza to escape from danger.

Burr was still, to some extent, popular in South Carolina; and any wavering or timidity on the part of Perkins, would have lost him his prisoner; but the celerity of his movements gave the people no time to reflect, before he was far in the outskirts of the village. Here the guard halted. Burr was highly excited; he was in tears! The kind-hearted Malone also wept, at seeing the uncontrollable despondency of him who had, hitherto, proved almost iron-hearted. It was the first time any one had ever seen Aaron Burr unmanned.

On Burr’s arrival at Richmond, the ladies of the city vied with each other in contributing to his comfort. Some sent him fruit, some clothes, some one thing, some another.

Burr was tried before the Supreme Court of the United States, at Richmond, for treason, and found not guilty, though the popular voice continued to regard him as a traitor. Failing to convict the principal, the numerous confederates of Burr were never brought to trial, and were discharged from custody.

After his trial, Burr went abroad, virtually a banished man. He was still



full of his schemes against Mexico, and, unsuccessfully, attempted to enlist England, and then France, in these projects. Here his funds failed. He had no friends to apply to, and was forced to borrow, on one occasion, a couple of sous from a cigar woman, on the corner of the street.

At last, he returned to New York, but in how different a guise from the days of his glory! No cannon thundered at his coming; no crowd thronged along the quay. Men gazed suspiciously upon him, as he walked along, or crossed the street to avoid him, as one having the pestilence. But he was not, he thought, wholly destitute. His daughter, who devotedly clung to him through all his trials, still lived; his heart yearned to clasp her to his bosom. She left Charleston, South Carolina, accordingly, to meet him. But although more than thirty years have elapsed, no tidings of the pilot boat, on which she sailed, have ever been received. Weeks grew into months, and months glided into years, but her father and husband watched in vain for her coming. Whether the vessel perished by conflagration—whether it foundered in a gale, or whether it was taken by pirates, and all on board murdered, will never be known until the great day, when the sea shall give up its dead.

It is said that this blow broke the heart of Burr, and that though in public he maintained a proud equanimity, in private, tears forced themselves down his furrowed cheeks. He lived thirty years after this event; but in his own words, “felt severed from the human race.” He had neither brother nor sister, nor lineal descendant. No man ever called him by the endearing name of friend. The weight of fourscore years was on his brow. He was racked by disease. At last death, so long desired, came, but, it is said, in a miserable lodging and alone. Was there ever such a retribution?

Scarcely less melancholy was the fate of his principal victim, Herman Blannerhasset. This gentleman was born in England, of Irish parents, in 1767, and was educated for the bar. He married Miss Adeline Agnew, a grand-daughter of the Gen. Agnew, who was with Wolfe at Quebec. She was a lady of fine accomplishments, of great personal beauty, and fully merited the celebrated encomium of Wirt. Strongly imbued with republican principles, Blannerhasset emigrated to the United States, and commenced improvements about the year 1798, upon the beautiful island which bears his name, where he reared a mansion which became the abode of elegant hospitality. He was a fine scholar, and refined in taste and manners. Possessing an ample fortune, a beautiful and accomplished wife, and children just budding into life, he seemed surrounded with everything which can make existence desirable and happy.

In 1805, Aaron Burr, sailing down the Ohio, landed, uninvited, on the island, where he was received with frank hospitality. He again visited the island, and enticed Blannerhasset into his plans. When the Virginia militia took possession of the island, in 1806, the mob spirit ran riot, and great injury was done to the grounds, and the dwelling, and its furniture. In 1811, the work of devastation was completed by a fire, which destroyed the mansion.

At the time of the trial of Burr, Blannerhasset was arrested, and placed in the penitentiary at Richmond. When he was set at liberty, he was nearly ruined in fortune by the advances he had made to Burr. He then settled on a cotton plantation in Mississippi, and there was a prospect of his being enabled to regain his lost fortune; but the war of 1812 broke out, and cotton

falling to a merely nominal price, and his numerous creditors pressing upon him, he was about to despair, when an old friend, the acting governor of Canada, hearing of his critical situation, offered him a judgeship in one of the provincial courts. He accordingly emigrated to Canada, but upon arriving there found that the capriciousness of the British ministry had removed his friend from office. He was now hopelessly cast upon the world, at an advanced age, without health and energy, and almost entirely destitute. As a last resort, he sailed for Europe to prosecute a reversionary claim, still existing, in Ireland, regarded by him with indifference in the days of his affluence.

Through the influence of friends also, he hoped to obtain an office under the English government, by which he might more readily obtain the means of conducting his suit. He applied for an office to Lord Anglesey, but he coldly repelled the solicitations of his old schoolmate. His plans all frustrated, he moved to the island of Guernsey, where, in 1831, wearied with the turmoil of life, he sank to his eternal rest, in the 63d year of his age. His faithful wife returned to the United States to procure indemnity from Congress for spoliation upon their property by the militia. But before the claim could be considered, she died in abject poverty, in an humble abode in the city of New York. In her last hours, she was surrounded by strangers, and the recipient of their charity; and her remains were escorted to their final resting-place, by some humble Irish females.

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## AN AERIAL VOYAGE.

**O**F all the wonderful discoveries to which modern science has given birth, there is perhaps not one which has been applied to useful purposes on a scale so unexpectedly contracted as that by which we are enabled to penetrate into the immense ocean of air with which our globe is surrounded, and to examine the physical phenomena which are manifested in its upper strata. One would have supposed that the moment the power was conferred on us to leave the surface of the earth, and rise above the clouds into the superior regions, a thousand eager inquirers would present themselves as agents in researches in a region so completely untrodden, if such a term may here be permitted.

Nevertheless, this great invention of aerial navigation has remained almost barren. If we except the celebrated aerial voyage of Gay-Lussac in 1804, the balloon, with its wonderful powers, has been allowed to degenerate into a mere theatrical exhibition, exciting the vacant and unreflecting wonder of the multitude. Instead of being an instrument of philosophical research, it has become a mere expedient for profit in the hands of charlatans, so much so, that on the occasion to which we are now about to advert, the persons who engaged in the project incurred failure, and risked their lives, from their aversion to avail themselves of the experience of those who had made aerostation a mere spectacle for profit. They thought that



to touch pitch they must be defiled, and preferred danger and the risk of failure to such association.

It is now about two years since M. Barral, a chemist of some distinction at Paris, and M. Bixio a member of the Legislative Assembly, resolved upon making a grand experiment with a view to observe and record the meteorological phenomena of the strata of the atmosphere, at a greater height and with more precision than had hitherto been accomplished. But, from the motives which we have explained, the project was kept secret, and it was resolved that the experiment should be made at an hour of the morning, and under circumstances, which would prevent it from degenerating into an exhibition. MM. Arago and Regnault undertook to supply the aerial voyagers with a programme of the proposed performance, and instruments suited to the projected observations. M. Arago prepared the programme, in which was stated clearly what observations were to be made at every stage of the ascensional movement.

It was intended that the balloon should be so managed as to come to rest at certain altitudes, when barometric, thermometric, hygrometric, polariscopic, and other observations, were to be taken and noted; the balloon after each series of observations to make a new ascent.

The precious instruments by which these observations were to be made were prepared, and in some cases actually fabricated and graduated, by the hands of M. Regnault himself.

To provide the balloon and its appendages, recourse was had to some of those persons who have followed the fabrication of balloons as a sort of trade, for the purposes of exhibition.

In this part of their enterprise the voyagers were not so fortunate, as we shall presently see, and still less so in having taken the resolution to ascend alone, unaccompanied by a practiced aeronaut. It is probable that if they had selected a person, such as Mr. Green, for example, who had already made frequent ascents for the mere purpose of exhibition, and who had become familiar with the practical management of the machine, a much more favorable result would have ensued. As it was, the two voyagers ascended for the first time, and placed themselves in a position like that of a natural philosopher, who, without previous practice, should undertake to drive a locomotive, with its train, on a railway, at fifty miles an hour, rejecting the humble but indispensable aid of an experienced engine-driver.

The necessary preparations having been made, and the programme and the instruments prepared, it was resolved to make the ascent from the garden behind the Observatory at Paris, a plateau of some elevation, and free from buildings and other obstacles, at day break of Saturday, the 29th of June. At midnight the balloon was brought to the spot, but the inflation was not completed until nearly 10 o'clock, A. M.

It has since been proved that the balloon was old and worn, and that it ought not to have been supplied for such an occasion.

It was obviously patched, and it is now known that two seamstresses were employed during the preceding day in mending it, and some stitching even was found necessary after it had arrived at the Observatory.

The net-work which included and supported the car was new, and not originally made with a view to the balloon it inclosed, the consequences of which will be presently seen.

The night between Friday and Saturday, was one of continual rain, and the balloon and its netting became thoroughly saturated with moisture. By the time the inflation had been completed, it became evident that the net-work was too small; but in the anxiety to carry into effect the project, the consequences of this were most unaccountably overlooked. We say unaccountably, because it is extremely difficult to conceive how experimental philosophers and practiced observers, like MM. Arago and Regnault, to say nothing of numerous subordinate scientific agents who were present, did not anticipate what must have ensued in the upper regions of the air. Nevertheless, such was the fact.

On the morning of Saturday, the instruments being duly deposited in the car, the two enterprising voyagers placed themselves in it, and the balloon, which previously had been held down by the strength of twenty men, was liberated, and left to plunge into the ocean of air, at twenty-seven minutes after ten o'clock.

The weather, as we have already stated, was unfavorable, the sky being charged with clouds. As it was the purpose of this project to examine much higher regions of the atmosphere than those which it had been customary for aeronautic exhibitors to rise to, the arrangements of ballast and inflation which were adopted, were such as to cause the ascent to be infinitely more rapid than in the case of public exhibitions; in short, the balloon darted upward with the speed of an arrow, and in two minutes from the moment it was liberated, that is to say, at twenty-nine minutes past ten, plunged into the clouds, and was withdrawn from the anxious view of the distinguished persons assembled in the garden of the Observatory.

While passing through this dense cloud, the voyagers carefully observed the barometer, and knew by the rapid fall of the mercury that they were ascending with a great velocity. Fifteen minutes elapsed before they emerged from the cloud; when they did so, however, a glorious spectacle presented itself. The balloon, emerging from the superior surface of the cloud, rose under a splendid canopy of azure, and shone with the rays of a brilliant sun. The cloud which they had just passed, was soon seen several thousand feet below them. From the observations taken with the barometer and thermometer, it was afterward found that the thickness of the cloud through which they had passed, was 9,800 feet—a little less than two miles. On emerging from the cloud, our observers examined the barometer, and found that the mercury had fallen to the height of 18 inches; the thermometer showed a temperature of 45 degrees Fahr. The height of the balloon above the level of the sea was then 14,200 feet. At the moment of emerging from the cloud, M. Barral made polariscopic observation, which established a fact foreseen by M. Arago, that the light reflected from the surface of the clouds, was unpolarized light.

The continued and somewhat considerable fall of the barometer informed the observers that their ascent still continued to be rapid. The rain which had previously fallen, and which wetted the balloon, and saturated the cordage forming the net-work, had now ceased, or, to speak more correctly, the balloon had passed above the region in which the rain prevailed. The strong action of the sun, and almost complete dryness of the air in which the vast machine now floated, caused the evaporation of the moisture which enveloped it. The cordage and balloon becoming dry, and thus relieved of a certain weight of liquid, was affected as though a quantity of



ballast had been thrown out, and it darted upward with increased velocity. It was within one minute of eleven, when the observers finding the barometer cease the upward motion, and finding that the machine oscillated round a position of equilibrium, by noticing the bearing of the sun, they found the epoch favorable for another series of observations. The barometer there indicated that the balloon had attained the enormous height of 19,700 feet. The moisture which had invested the thermometer had frozen upon it, and obstructed, for the moment, observations with it. It was while M. Barral was occupied in wiping the icicles from it, that, turning his eye upward, he beheld what would have been sufficient to have made the stoutest heart quail with fear.

To explain the catastrophe which at this moment, and at nearly 20,000 feet above the surface of the earth, and about a mile above the highest strata of the clouds, menaced the voyagers, we must recur to what we have already stated in reference to the balloon and the net-work. As it was intended to ascend to an unusual altitude, it was of course known, that in consequence of the highly rarefied state of the atmosphere, and its very much diminished pressure, the gas contained in the balloon would have a great tendency to distend, and consequently space must be allowed for the play of this effect. The balloon, therefore, at starting, was not nearly filled with gas, and yet, as we have explained it, very nearly filled the net-work which inclosed it. Is it not strange that some among the scientific men present did not foresee, that when it would ascend into a highly rarefied atmosphere, it would necessarily distend itself to such a magnitude, that the netting would be utterly insufficient to contain it? Such effect, so strangely unforeseen, now disclosed itself practically realized to the astonished and terrified eyes of M. Barral.

The balloon, in fact, had so swelled as not only completely to fill the netting which covered it, but to force its way, in a frightful manner, through the hoop under it, from which the car and the voyagers were suspended.

In short, the inflated silk protruding downward through the hoop, now nearly touched the heads of the voyagers. In this emergency the remedy was sufficiently obvious.

The valve must be opened, and the balloon breathed, so as to relieve it from the over-inflation. Now, it is well known, that the valve in this machine is placed in a sort of sleeve, of a length more or less considerable, connected with the lower part of the balloon, through which sleeve the string of the valve passes. M. Barral, on looking for this sleeve, found that it had disappeared. Further search showed that the balloon being awkwardly and improperly placed in the inclosing net-work, the valve-sleeve, instead of hanging clear of the hoop, had been gathered up in the net-work above the hoop; so that, to reach it, it would have been necessary to have forced a passage between the inflated silk and the hoop.

Now, here it must be observed, that such an incident could never have happened to the most commonly-practiced balloon exhibitor, whose first measure, before leaving the ground, would be to secure access to, and the play of the valve. This, however, was, in the present case, fatally overlooked. It was, in fine, now quite apparent, that one of two effects must speedily ensue—viz: either the car and the voyagers would be buried in the inflated silk which was descending upon them, and thus they would be

suffocated, or that the force of distention must burst the balloon. If a rupture were to take place in that part immediately over the car, then the voyagers would be suffocated by an atmosphere of hydrogen; if it should take place in a superior part, then the balloon, rapidly discharged of its gas, would be precipitated to the earth, and the destruction of its occupants rendered inevitable.

Under these circumstances, the voyagers did not lose their presence of mind, but calmly considered their situation, and promptly decided upon the course to be adopted. M. Barral climbed up the side of the car, and the net-work suspending it, and forced his way through the hoop, so as to catch hold of the valve-sleeve. In this operation, however, he was obliged to exercise a force which produced a rent in a part of the silk below the hoop, and immediately over the car. In a moment the hydrogen gas issued with terrible force from the balloon, and the voyagers found themselves involved in an atmosphere of it. Respiration became impossible, and they were nearly suffocated. A glance at the barometer, however, showed them that they were falling to the ground with the most fearful rapidity.

During a few moments they experienced all the anguish attending asphyxia. From this situation, however, they were relieved more speedily than they could then have imagined possible; but the cause which relieved them soon became evident, and inspired them with fresh terrors.

M. Barral, from the indications of the barometer, knew that they were being precipitated to the surface of the earth with a velocity so prodigious, that the passage of the balloon through the atmosphere dispelled the mass of hydrogen with which they had been surrounded.

It was, nevertheless, evident that the small rent which had been produced in the lower part of the balloon, by the abortive attempt to obtain access to the valve, could not have been the cause of a fall so rapid.

M. Barral accordingly proceeded to examine the external surface of the balloon, as far as it was visible from the car, and, to his astonishment and terror, he discovered that a rupture had taken place, and that a rent was made about five feet in length, along the equator of the machine, through which, of course, the gas was now escaping in immense quantities. Here was the cause of the frightful precipitation of the descent, and a source of imminent danger in the fall. M. Barral promptly decided on the course to be taken.

It was resolved to check the descent by the discharge of the ballast, and every other article of weight. But this process, to be effectual, required to be conducted with considerable coolness and skill. They were some thousand feet above the clouds. If the ballast were dismissed too soon, the balloon must again acquire a perilous velocity before it would reach the earth. If, on the other hand, its descent were not moderated in time, its fall might become so precipitate as to be ungovernable. Nine or ten sand-bags being, therefore, reserved for the last and critical moment, all the rest of the baggage was discharged. The fall being still frightfully rapid, the voyagers cast out, as they descended through the cloud already mentioned, every article of weight which they had, among which were the blankets and woollen clothing which they had brought to cover them in the upper regions of the atmosphere, their shoes, several bottles of wine, all, in fine, save and except the philosophical instruments. These they regarded



as the soldier does his flag, not to be surrendered save with life. M. Bixio, when about to throw over a trifling apparatus, called an aspirator, composed of copper and filled with water, was forbidden by M. Barral, and obeyed the injunction.

They soon emerged from the lower stratum of the cloud, through which they had fallen in less than two minutes, having taken fifteen minutes to ascend through it. The earth was now in sight, and they were dropping upon it like a stone. Every weighty article had been dismissed, except the nine sand-bags, which had been designedly reserved to break the shock on arriving at the surface. They observed that they were directly over some vine-grounds near Lagny, in the department of the Seine and Marne, and could distinctly see a number of laborers engaged in their ordinary toil, who regarded with unmeasured astonishment the enormous object about to drop upon them. It was only when they arrived at a few hundred feet from the surface, that the nine bags of sand were dropped by M. Barral, and by this manoeuvre the lives of the voyagers were probably saved. The balloon reached the ground and the car struck among the vines. Happily the wind was gentle; but gentle as it was it was sufficient, acting upon the enormous surface of the balloon, to drag the car along the ground, as if it were drawn by fiery and ungovernable horses. Now arrived the moment of difficulty and danger, which also had been foreseen and provided for by M. Barral. If either of the voyagers had singly leaped from the car, the balloon, lightened of so much weight, would dart up again into the air. Neither would consent, then, to purchase his own safety at the risk of the other. M. Barral, therefore, threw his body half down from the car, laying hold of the vine-stakes, as he was dragged along, and directing M. Bixio to hold fast to his feet. In this way the two voyagers, by their united bodies, formed a sort of anchor, the arms of M. Barral playing the part of the fluke, and the body of M. Bixio that of the cable. In this way M. Barral was dragged over a portion of the vineyard rapidly, without any other injury than a scratch or contusion of the face, produced by one of the vine-stakes.

The laborers just referred to meanwhile collected, and pursued the balloon, and finally succeeded in securing it, and in liberating the voyagers, whom they afterward thanked for the bottles of excellent wine which, as they supposed, had fallen from the heavens, and which, wonderful to relate, had not been broken from the fall, although, as has been stated, they had been discharged above the clouds. The astonishment and perplexity of the rustics can be imagined on seeing these bottles drop in the vineyard. This fact also shows how perpendicularly the balloon must have dropped, since the bottles dismissed from such a height, fell in the same field where, in a minute afterward, the balloon also dropped.

The entire descent from the altitude of twenty thousand feet was effected in seven minutes, being at the average rate of fifty feet per second.

In fine, we have to report that these adventurous partisans of science, nothing discouraged by the catastrophe which has occurred, have resolved to renew the experiment, under, as may be hoped, less inauspicious circumstances; and we trust that on the next occasion they will not disdain to avail themselves of the coöperation and presence of some one of those persons, who, having hitherto practiced aerial navigation for the mere pur-

poses of amusement, will, doubtless, be too happy to invest one at least of their labors with a more useful and more noble character.

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## VOYAGE OF THE FIRST WESTERN STEAMBOAT.

**T**HE first western steamboat, was the New Orleans, a craft of four hundred tons burden, which was built at Pittsburgh in 1811. The origin of this boat and the history of her first voyage, is thus given by Latrobe, from which it will be seen that she narrowly escaped being overwhelmed in the great earthquakes that signalized the latter part of that year in the annals of the west.

The complete success attending the experiments in steam navigation made on the Hudson and the adjoining waters previous to the year 1809, turned the attention of the principal projectors to the idea of its application on the western waters; and in the month of April of that year, Mr. Rosevelt of New York, pursuant to an agreement with Chancellor Livingston and Mr. Fulton, visited those rivers with the purpose of forming an opinion whether they admitted of steam navigation or not. At this time two boats, the North River and the Clermont, were running on the Hudson.

Mr. Rosevelt surveyed the rivers from Pittsburgh to New Orleans, and as his report was favorable, it was decided to build a boat in the former town. This was done under his direction, and in the course of 1811, the first boat was launched upon the waters of the Ohio. It was called the "New Orleans," and was intended to ply between Natchez and New Orleans. In October, it left Pittsburgh on its experimental voyage. On this occasion, no freight or passengers were taken, the object being merely to bring the boat to her station. Mr. Rosevelt, his young wife and family, Mr. Baker, the engineer, Andrew Jack, the pilot, and six hands with a few domestics, formed her whole burden. There were no woodyards at that time, and constant delays were unavoidable.

When, as related, Mr. Rosevelt had gone down the river to reconnoitre, he had discovered two beds of coal, about one hundred and twenty miles below the rapids of Louisville, and now took tools to work them, intending to load the vessel with coal, and to employ it as fuel, instead of constantly detaining the boat while wood was procuring from the banks.

Late at night, on the fourth day after quitting Pittsburgh, they arrived in safety at Louisville, having been but seventy hours descending upward of seven hundred miles. The novel appearance of the vessel, and the fearful rapidity with which it made its passage over the broad reaches of the river, excited a mixture of terror and surprise among many of the settlers on the banks, whom the rumor of such an invention had never reached: and it is related, that on the unexpected arrival of the vessel before Louisville, in the course of a fine, still moonlight night, the extraordinary sound which filled the air as the pent up steam was suffered to escape from the valves, on round-



ing to, produced a general alarm, and multitudes in the town rose from their beds to ascertain the cause.

I have heard the general impression among the good Kentuckians, was, that the comet had fallen into the Ohio; but this does not rest upon the same foundation as the other facts which I lay before you, and which I may at once say, I had directly from the lips of the parties themselves. The small depth of water in the rapids, prevented the boat from pursuing her voyage immediately; and during the consequent detention of three weeks in the upper part of the Ohio several trips were successfully made between Louisville and Cincinnati. In fine, the waters rose, and in the course of the last week in November, the voyage was resumed, the depth of water barely admitting their passage.

When they arrived about five miles above the Yellow Banks, they moved the boat opposite the first vein of coal, which was on the Indiana side, and had been purchased in the interim of the State government. They found a large quantity already quarried to their hand and conveyed to the shore by depredators who had not found means to carry it off, and with this they commenced loading the boat. While thus employed, our voyagers were accosted in great alarm by the squatters of the neighborhood, who inquired if they had not heard strange noises on the river and in the woods in the course of the preceding day, and perceived the shores shake—insisting that they had repeatedly felt the earth tremble.

Hitherto, nothing extraordinary had been perceived. The following day they pursued their monotonous voyage in those vast solitudes. The weather was observed to be oppressively hot; the air misty, still and dull; and though the sun was visible like a glowing ball of copper, his rays hardly shed more than a mournful twilight on the surface of the water. Evening drew nigh, and with it some indications of what was passing around them became evident. And as they sat on deck, they ever and anon heard a rushing sound and violent splash, and saw large portions of the shore tearing away from the land and falling into the river. It was, as my informant said, an awful day; so still that you could have heard a pin drop on the deck! They spoke little, for every one on board appeared thunderstruck. The comet had disappeared about this time, which circumstance was noticed with awe by the crew.

The second day after leaving the Yellow Banks, the sun was over the forests, the same dim ball of fire, and the air was thick, dull, and oppressive as before. The portentous signs of this terrible natural convulsion continued and increased. The pilot, alarmed and confused, affirmed that he was lost, as he found the channel everywhere altered; and where he had hitherto known deep water, there lay numberless trees with their roots upward. The trees were seen waving and nodding on the bank, without a wind, but the adventurers had no choice but to continue their route. Toward evening they found themselves at loss for a place of shelter. They had usually brought to under the shore, but everywhere they saw the high banks disappearing, overwhelming many a flat-boat and raft, from which the owners had landed and escaped.

A large island in mid-channel, selected by the pilot as the better alternative, was sought for in vain, having disappeared entirely. Thus, in doubt and terror, they proceeded, hour after hour, until dark, when they found a small island and moored themselves at its foot. Here they lay, keeping watch on deck during the long winter's night, listening to the sound of the waters,

which roared and gurgled horribly around them: and hearing, from time to time, the rushing earth slide from the shore, and the commotion as the falling mass of earth and trees was swallowed up by the river. The lady of the party, a delicate female, who had just been confined on board as they lay off Louisville, was frequently awakened from her restless slumber by the jar given to the furniture and loose articles in the cabin, as several times in the course of the night, the shock of the passing earth was communicated from the island to the bow of the vessel. It was a long night, but morning showed them that they were near the mouth of the Ohio. The shores and channel were now not recognizable, for everything seemed changed. About noon of that day, they reached the small town of New Madrid, on the right bank of the Mississippi. Here they found the inhabitants in the greatest distress and consternation; part of the population had fled, in terror, to the higher grounds; others prayed to be taken on board, as the earth was opening in fissures on every side, and their houses hourly falling around them.

Proceeding from thence, they found the Mississippi unusually swollen, turbid and full of trees, and after many days of great danger, though they felt and perceived no more of the earthquakes, they reached their destination at Natchez at the close of the first week in January, 1812, to the astonishment of all, the escape of the boat having been considered an impossibility.

The Orleans continued to run between New Orleans and Natchez, making her voyages to average seventeen days, until 1813 or '14, when she was wrecked near Baton Rouge by striking on a snag. In the course of the few years succeeding the construction of the Orleans, several other boats were built and launched upon the western rivers. Yet such was their want of success that the public had no faith that steamboat navigation would succeed upon the western waters, until the trip of the Washington in the spring of 1817, when she went from Louisville to New Orleans and returned in forty-five days. This boat was of four hundred tons burden, and was built at Wheeling under the direction of her captain, H. M. Shreve. "Her boilers," says Judge Hall in his Notes, "were on the upper deck, and she was the first boat on that plan, since so generally in use."

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## SUFFERINGS OF CALIFORNIA EMIGRANTS.

**N**OTWITHSTANDING the great sufferings of various parties of overland emigrants to California since the era of the gold discovery, they will bear no comparison with those about to be related. In the latter part of the year 1846, a party of eighty emigrants, men, women and children, known as Reed and Donner's Company, by exploring a new route through the Deserts of Utah, and from other causes, lost so much time that they did not reach the Pass of the Sierra Nevada until the 31st of October, when they should have been there a month earlier. The snow, unfortunately, had commenced falling two or three weeks earlier



than usual, and when they arrived at the foot of the pass in the mountains, it had become so deep that they found it impossible to proceed. They erected cabins on the banks of Truckee Lake, near the eastern base of the Sierra Nevada, about one hundred miles northeast of the site of Sacramento City, and ere relief reached them, thirty-six of their number perished from cold and starvation, while the unfortunate survivors were obliged to subsist on the corpses of their companions, in order to escape a like fate.

From the 1st of November until the 16th of December, several attempts were made by some of the emigrants to cross the mountains from their cabins into the settlements, to bring relief to the company; but owing to the softness and the depth of the snow, they were obliged to turn back. On that day, expecting that they would be enabled to reach the settlements in ten days, seven men, five women, a boy and two Indians, having prepared themselves with snow-shoes, again started on the perilous undertaking, determined to succeed or perish.

On first starting, the snow was so light and loose that even with snow-shoes they sunk in twelve inches at every step. On the 17th, they crossed the dividing ridge, and by the 20th, owing to the extreme difficulty of walking in snow-shoes, and the softness of the snow, had succeeded in reaching only twenty miles in advance of their cabins. On that day, the sun rose clear and beautiful, and cheered by its sparkling rays, they pursued their weary way. On this day they traveled eight miles; but one of their number, Mr. Stanton, being unable to keep up with them, remained behind and perished in the snow. A severe snow storm having come on, they remained in camp until the 23d, when, although the storm continued, they traveled eight miles and encamped in a deep valley. Here the appearance of the country was so different from what they had anticipated, that they concluded they were lost, but determined to go on rather than return to their miserable cabins. They were also at this time out of provisions, and partly agreed that, in case of necessity, they would cast lots who should die to preserve the remainder. By morning, the snow had so increased that they could not travel; while, to add to their sufferings, their fire had been put out by the rain, and all their endeavors to light another proved abortive. Already death was in the midst of them, Antonio and Mr. Graves dying at that time.

In this critical moment the presence of mind of Mr. William Eddy suggested the plan for keeping themselves warm, practiced among the trappers of the Rocky Mountains when caught in the snow without fire. It is simply to spread a blanket on the snow, when the party—if small—with the exception of one, sit down upon it in a circle, closely as possible, their feet piled over one another in the center, room being left for the person who has to complete the arrangement. As many blankets as are necessary are then spread over the heads of the party, the ends being kept down by billets of wood or snow. After everything is completed, the person outside takes his place in the circle. As the snow falls it closes up the pores of the blankets, while the breath of the party underneath soon causes a comfortable warmth. In this situation they remained a day and a half. One of the men, Patrick Doolan, and Murphy, a boy, having in the meanwhile become delirious, died.

On the afternoon of the 26th they succeeded in getting fire into a dry pine-tree. Having been four days without food, and since October on short

allowance, they had now no alternative but starvation or preserving life by eating the corpses of the dead. This horrible expedient was resorted to with great reluctance. They cut the flesh from the arms and legs of Doolan, and roasted and ate it, averting their faces from each other and weeping.

Having stripped and dried the flesh from the bodies, they left the camp on the 30th, and with heavy hearts pressed on, wading through the snow and climbing the mountains with almost incredible fatigue; the blood from their frozen feet staining the snow over which they passed. Thus they continued on until the 5th of January, when Mr. Fosdick gave out, and his flesh was preserved to sustain life in the remainder. Soon after, Lewis laid down and died.

On the 17th, Mr. Eddy, who stood the fatigues better than any of the others, and had gone in advance of the rest, reached the settlement on Bear Creek, from whence relief was dispatched to the remains of his party. Of these, the females had borne up wonderfully. Not one had perished, while men of strong frames and nerves had gone down in the death-struggle. Never was the fortitude, the passive, enduring courage of woman more signally displayed, than in this dreadful march; they encouraged the men, by words and example, to bear up under their sufferings and persevere unto the end.

As soon as the people of San Francisco received from the settlement on Bear River intelligence of the dangerous situation of the emigrants encamped on Truckee Lake, they sent out several parties to their relief. Capt. Sutter also displayed his characteristic benevolence on the occasion, furnishing, in advance of the others, men and mules laden with provisions for the relief of the perishing sufferers. But such were the difficulties of reaching them, that it was not until the 29th of April that the last of the party was brought into Sutter's Fort.

A more shocking scene cannot be imagined, than that witnessed by the parties who went to the relief of the unfortunate emigrants. Large numbers had perished from cold and starvation. The bones of those who had died and been devoured by the miserable survivors, were lying around their tents and cabins. Bodies of men, women and children, with half the flesh torn from them, lay on every side. A woman sat by the side of the body of her husband, who had just died, and was in the act of cutting out his tongue; the heart she had already taken out, broiled, and eaten. The daughter was seen eating the flesh of the father—the mother, that of the children—children, that of parents. The emaciated, wild, and ghastly appearance of the survivors, added to the horror of the scene. The awful change cannot be described, which a few weeks of dire suffering had wrought in the minds of these wretched beings. Those who, but one month before, would have shuddered and sickened at the thought of eating human flesh, or of killing their companions and relatives to preserve their own lives, now looked upon the opportunity these acts afforded them of escaping death as a providential interference. Calculations were coldly made, as they sat around their gloomy camp-fires, for the next and succeeding meals. Various expedients were devised to prevent the dreadful crime of murder, but they finally resolved to kill those who had the least claims to longer existence, when just at that moment some of them died, which afforded temporary relief.



After the first few deaths, but the one all-absorbing thought of individual self-preservation prevailed. The feelings of natural affection were dried up. The cords that once vibrated with connubial, parental, and filial affection, were rent asunder, and each one seemed resolved, without regard to the fate of others, to escape from the impending calamity.

So changed had they become, that, on the arrival of the first party with food, some of them cast it aside, preferring the putrid human flesh that remained. The day previous, one of the emigrants took a small child in bed with him, and devoured the whole before morning.

With but few exceptions, all the sufferers, both those who perished and those who survived, manifested a species of insanity. Objects delightful to the senses often flitted across the imagination, and a thousand fantasies filled and disturbed the disordered brain.

Although in the midst of winter, their deluded fancies often represented to them during the day beautiful farm-houses, and extensive fields and gardens in the distance, toward which they would press forward with all the energy with which alternate hope and despair could inspire them. During the night, they often heard men talking, dogs barking, cocks crowing, and bells tinkling. Many believed that they were surrounded by familiar faces and old friends, and that they saw objects associated with scenes of other years and places. Some saw persons coming to their relief, and called to them to hasten. There were instances of persons suspecting, at times, that the terrible circumstances by which they were really surrounded were but the illusions of most horrible dreams, and they would rub their eyes, and put their hands upon their heads, to assure themselves, if it were possible, that all was not the result of a dreadful vision or nightmare.

Some of the party, though sometimes, during brief intervals, perfectly sane when awake, suffered from most painful and terrifying dreams—in which they saw combats and cries of despair and anguish, together with visions of famine and death, while floundering in fathomless snows.

Some of these unhappy emigrants felt a general sinking of all their mental and bodily energies, without, however, experiencing the gnawings of hunger. This absence of the sensation of hunger, was followed by an irresistible desire to sleep. In the course of half an hour after falling into this torpor, they breathed unnaturally and with difficulty, speedily followed by a rattling in the throat. This continued from one to four hours, when death closed the scene; the individual, in the meantime, appearing to be in a profound slumber. A few became furious, and died without sinking into this torpor. Others died calm and peaceful, taking affectionate leave of friends, and expressing a confident hope in the mercy of the blessed Redeemer.

The last relief party was conducted by Mr. Fallen, by which time all of the living sufferers had been taken into the settlements, excepting Mr. and Mrs. Donner, and a vile wretch named Keysburg. When the others left, Mrs. Donner remained with her husband, who was unable to travel. Why Keysburg remained can only be guessed. Donner was a highly respectable and wealthy farmer of Illinois, and his lady a woman of great activity and energy, and of a polished education. They had with them abundant means, in money and merchandise.

Fallen and his party reached the cabins sometime in April, in one of

which, they found Keysburg reclining upon the floor smoking a pipe. Near his head a fire was blazing, upon which was a camp-kettle filled with human flesh. His feet were resting upon skulls and dislocated limbs stripped of their flesh. A bucket, partly filled with blood, was standing near, and pieces of human flesh, fresh and bloody, strewed around. His appearance was haggard and revolting. His beard was of great length; his finger nails had grown out until they resembled the claws of a wild beast. He was ragged and filthy, and the expression of his countenance ferocious. He stated that the Donners were both dead; that Mrs. Donner was the last to die, and had expired two days previously; that she had left her husband's camp eight miles distant, and came to his cabin. She attempted to return in the evening to the camp, but becoming bewildered, she came back to the cabin and died in the course of the night.

He was accused of having murdered her for her flesh, and the money the Donners were known to possess, but denied it, and also all knowledge of their money; but Fallen placed a rope around his neck and commenced hanging him to a limb of a tree, when to save his life, he confessed that he knew all about the money. They released him and he produced \$517 in gold, which he had secreted. Against his will, they then compelled him to accompany them to the nearest settlements. The body of Donner was found in his cabin, where he had been carefully laid out by his wife, and a sheet wrapt around the corpse. This was the last act probably that she performed ere visiting the cabin of Keysburg.

On the 22d of June, 1847, the return party of Gen. Kearny halted at the scene of these horrible occurrences to collect and bury the remains. Near the principal cabins were two bodies entire, with the exception that their abdomen had been cut open and their entrails extracted. Their flesh had been wasted by famine, or evaporated by exposure to a dry atmosphere, and they presented the appearance of mummies. Strewn about the cabins, were dislocated and broken bones—skulls, some of which had been sawed apart carefully to extract their brains—human skeletons, in short, in every variety of mutilation, all presenting a most appalling and revolting spectacle.

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## TURKISH COFFEE HOUSES.

**D**R. RUSSELL, in his "History of Aleppo," says that the use of coffee was first introduced into Syria about the middle of the sixteenth century, or perhaps some years earlier than at Constantinople. "The Turks," he adds, "probably received the custom of smoking through water from Persia; that of smoking in the ordinary way they certainly had from Europe; and it is a curious circumstance in the history of human luxury, that a practice so disagreeable at first, and accompanied with so little positive sensual pleasure, afterwards should have spread with such rapidity among a people not much disposed to adopt foreign customs."

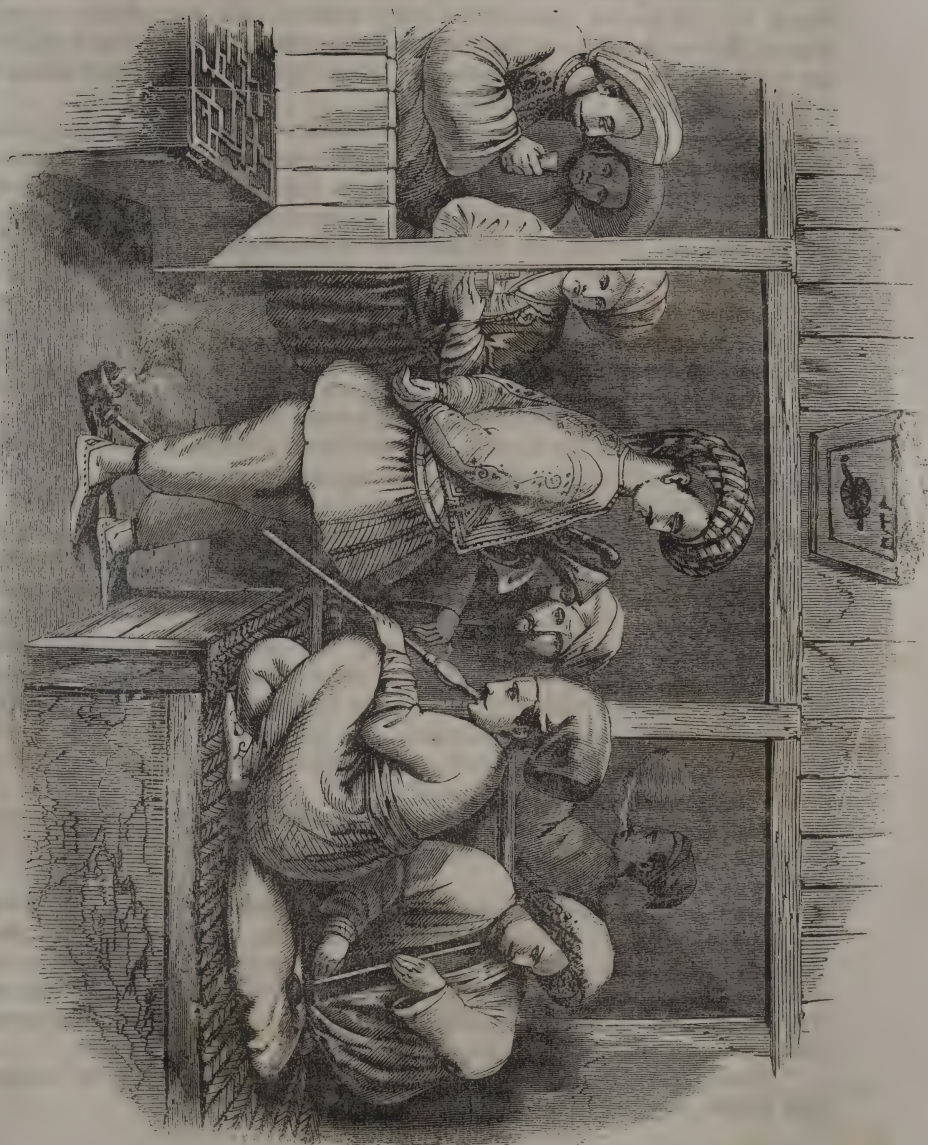


He gives several statements in his "Notes and Illustrations," as confirming his opinion. One of these is from the Journal of William Biddulph, who traveled to Jerusalem in 1600. "Their coffee houses," says Biddulph, "at Aleppo are more common than ale-houses in England, but they use not so much to sit in the houses, as on benches on both sides of the street, near unto a coffee house, every man with his finjon (cup) full, which being smoking hot, they use to put it to their nose and ears, and then sip it off by leisure, being full of idle and alehouse talk." "This," adds Dr. Russell, "is an exact description of what is done at Aleppo at this day; and had smoking tobacco been at that time a practice, it is hardly probable that Biddulph would have omitted it on this occasion, or where he describes their drinking sherbets, eating opium, &c."

Dr. Russell's own description of the coffee houses of Aleppo may here be quoted, as showing what they were in their "better days," before the spirit of change manifested itself in Turkey. "The coffee houses (of Aleppo) naturally attract the notice of a stranger, more than any of the objects he meets with in rambling over the city. They are found in all quarters of the town, and some of them are spacious and handsome. They are gaudily painted, and furnished with matted platforms and benches, those of the better sort have a fountain in the middle, with a gallery for musicians. A row of large windows discovers to a passenger all that is going on within; and the company being supplied with small, low, wicker stools, often choose, in the summer, to sit before the door in the open air. These coffee houses are not frequented by persons of the first rank, but occasionally by all others, so that they are seldom empty, and at certain hours, are full of company. To a spectator not accustomed to the eastern garb and manners, such a motley assembly, variously grouped and placed in picturesque attitudes, compose a no less amusing than interesting scene."

It was in the coffee houses that the "story-teller" found his stage and audience. "The recitation of Eastern fables and tales partakes somewhat of a dramatic performance. It is not merely a simple narrative; the story is animated by the manner and action of the speaker. A variety of other story-books, besides the Arabian Nights' Entertainments, furnish materials for the story-teller, who, by combining the incidents of different tales, and varying the catastrophe of such as he has related before, gives them an air of novelty even to persons who at first imagine they are listening to tales with which they are acquainted. He recites, walking to and fro in the middle of the coffee room, stopping only now and then, when the expression requires some emphatical attitude. He is commonly heard with great attention, and not unfrequently in the midst of some interesting adventure, when the expectation of the audience is raised to the highest pitch, he breaks off abruptly and makes his escape from the room, leaving both his heroine and his audience in the utmost embarrassment. Those who happen to be near the door endeavor to detain him, insisting on the story being finished before he departs, but he always makes his retreat good; and the auditors suspending their curiosity, are induced to return at the same hour next day to hear the sequel. He has no sooner made his exit than the company, in separate parties, fall to disputing about the characters of the drama, or the event of the unfinished adventure. The controversy by degrees becomes serious, and opposite opinions are main-

TURKISH COFFEE HOUSES.





tained with no less warmth than if the fate of the city depended on the decision."

But the coffee houses of Constantinople, though still very numerous and much frequented, are no longer the important places they were. Towards the evening, they are much thronged by Turks, Armenians, Greeks, and Jews, all smoking and indulging in tiny cups of coffee, which is generally drunk by the poorer classes, not only without milk, but without sugar. Sultan Mahmood, after suppressing the Janissaries, endeavored to suppress the coffee houses, with what success the following extract from MacFarlane's "Constantinople in 1828," shall tell us.

"I was much surprised," says Mr. MacFarlane, "to see the great scarcity of coffee houses, which abound in Smyrna and in all the Turkish towns I had visited, and was struck with a disproportionate frequency of barbers' shops. It was explained when, on expressing a wish to rest awhile, my experienced Davide led me into one of those open chambers which, in appearance, was solely devoted to shaving, but which concealed, behind a wooden screen that looked like the end of the room, a spacious recess hung round with chibooks, (common pipes), *narghiles*, (water-pipes), and tiny coffee cups. The small charcoal fire for the preparation of the fragrant berry burned in the usual corner, and there were the usual benches and stools. In short it was a *bona fide* coffee house screened by a barber's shop, and a group of Osmanlis shuffled in immediately after us, not to be shaved, but to smoke their pipes and drink their cups of coffee.

"On the suppression of the Janissaries, the sultan issued an order for the general suppression of the innumerable coffee houses, the head-quarters of those turbulent reprobates, and the usual resort of the idle, the vicious, and the disaffected of the capital. Certain respectable houses in each quarter of the town were licensed. The vagrant story-tellers, who were accustomed to perform, *viva voce*, the office of our newspapers, and who were wont to collect crowds in these coffee houses, shared in the restrictions, and were threatened with something more serious than the treadmill—the bastinado. 'But,' said I to Davide, 'are all those hundred of barber's shops we have passed to-day nothing but veils to coffee houses?'

"'Not all, but the greater part of them.'

"'Yet the disguise might be easily penetrated; any bostandji might discover the recess, and arrest a crowd of delinquents—as here, for example.'

"'That's all very true,' replied my phlegmatic Chaldean, 'but what would the bostandjis get by that? The fact is, the Turks cannot live without coffee houses; and, besides, the order to shut them up is now an old affair. Each cafidjii may make it worth their while not to see; and so, you understand, the Stamboul-Effendi and officers of police under him need not look beyond the barber's shop.'

"During Davide's luminous speech, a Mollah, a starch man of the law and gospel, stepped in and called for a *narghile*."

## THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.

**P**ERHAPS no event in the history of England has more generally or permanently attracted the popular attention than that of the discovery of the gunpowder plot; and there is also perhaps no event in connection with which a greater amount of popular ignorance has existed. The causes of and the actors in the conspiracy have been alike comparatively unknown or misunderstood. Guido Faux, in particular, has been looked upon as the chief promoter of the plot, while its true author, Catesby, has been almost entirely overlooked; he has been considered a low, sanguinary and hired ruffian, while he was in reality a gentleman, in no respect distinguished from his companions, men, as he himself correctly termed them, of "name and blood," except by his unshaken courage, under the most appalling dangers, by his invincible fortitude under the pangs of torture and death.

To palliate the awful enormity of the crime contemplated by these conspirators, were in a measure to participate in their guilt; at the same time, it is but justice to acknowledge that they had persuaded themselves it was right thus to relieve the great body of their Catholic brethren from the cruel oppressions they were enduring, and, startling as the contrast between the means and the end justly appears to us, there can be no doubt that these fanatics hoped by so wholesale a murder to promote the cause of religion and enhance the glory of God! The true moral, therefore, of the transaction is of the highest practical importance; it shows us into what fearful atrocities fanaticism may lead men otherwise honorable and humane, and in spite of their being actuated by the purest intentions. That we may form a tolerably correct idea of the causes of the conspiracy, as well as of the motives of the conspirators, we present a few brief illustrations of the position of the Catholics at that time. Sir Thomas Tresham, originally a Protestant, was converted in 1580, by Campion and Parsons, two Catholic missionaries sent into England by the pope. From this period until the day of his death (twenty-five years) this unhappy man was never free from persecution. A great portion of this time was spent in jail, and altogether he underwent, to use his own touching words, "full twenty-four years of restless adversity and deep disgrace only for testimony of his conscience." During all this time, £260 a year was abstracted from his estate, being the statutory penalty of £20 a lunar month imposed upon all recusants, as those were called who refused to conform to the Protestant Church by attending its places of worship on the Sabbath. One of the conspirators, Tresham, was Sir Thomas' son. A second illustration is the case of Edward Rookwood, of Euston Hall, in Suffolk. This gentleman splendidly entertained Elizabeth on one of her royal progresses, and within a fortnight afterwards was thrown into jail, with "seven more gentlemen of worship." We need not pursue his history further than to quote the following extract from the parish register of burials for St. James', Bury St. Edmund's:—"Mr. Rookwood, from the



jail, buried June 4, 1598." Thus died the cousin of Rookwood, another of the conspirators. The last case we shall here mention is that of Mr. Thomas Throckmorton, head of the elder branch of the ancient family of that name. This gentleman's estate was under continual sequestration for the fines levied upon him; his life was shortened by no less continual imprisonment. Catesby and Tresham were Mr. Throckmorton's nephews, and two more of the conspirators, the brothers Winter, were also nearly allied to him. Some of the most barbarous of the laws under which these individuals were persecuted, passed during the latter years of Elizabeth's reign. The fines for recusancy were then declared, and Catholics forbidden to use the rites and ceremonies of their own faith.

The death of Elizabeth, however, excited fresh hopes in the minds of the Catholics. Percy, one of the conspirators, had been previously sent down to Edinburgh to learn James' opinion, and the answer was so favorable, that he, in common with the great body of the Catholics, was deceived, and warmly supported that monarch's cause. Wofully were these hopes disappointed. Within the first two or three years of James' reign the penal laws of Elizabeth were again in full force, accompanied with still more barbarous and exasperating regulations. At this point of time, and while matters were in this state, the design of blowing up the houses of parliament by gunpowder at the opening of the session, and thus destroying at one blow king, lords, and commons, appears to have been formed by Catesby.

Robert Catesby was the lineal descendant of the favorite minister of Richard III. His father, Sir William Catesby, also converted by Campion, had been several times imprisoned for recusancy, and his mother was a sister of the Thomas Throckmorton before mentioned; so that Catesby had seen those nearest and dearest to him suffering under continual and unrelenting persecution. He is said to have spent a considerable portion of his estate in licentiousness in his early years, and to have deserted the faith of his father; but in 1598, he returned to it, abjured his former dissolute courses, and, with all the ardor of his naturally enthusiastic mind, devoted himself to the task of making proselytes and of rescuing the Catholics from their thralldom. With this view he, as well as many other distinguished Catholics, supported the insurrection of Essex (who promised toleration), and was wounded and taken prisoner in the affair. His pardon was obtained with great difficulty and at the price of £3000. Various other treasonable projects were set on foot during the latter years of Elizabeth's reign by the Catholics, having all the same impelling motive, relief from persecution, and in which Catesby joined. He appears to have first disclosed his scheme to a friend, John Wright, who was descended from a respectable family in Yorkshire, and who had been also greatly harrassed with persecutions and imprisonments. He too had joined in Essex's insurrection. Thomas Winter, the next person admitted into the plot, was a mutual friend of Catesby and Wright: he was an able and accomplished man, familiar with several languages, and possessed a reputation among the Catholics for his skill in intrigue, which his personal acquaintance with some of the most influential ministers of foreign courts enabled him to turn to account. The three met at Lambeth, about Lent, 1603-4, when Catesby plainly told Winter that "his plan was to blow up the parliament house with gunpowder; for," said he, "in that place they have done us all the mischief, and perchance God hath designed that place for their punishment." Winter

hesitating, Catesby observed, "the nature of the disease required so sharp a remedy." Winter at last consented, his scruples being entirely removed by Catesby's observation, that in order to "leave no peaceable and quiet way untried," the former should go to the constable of Castile, Velasco, then in Flanders, on his way to England to conclude a peace between James and the King of Spain, and tell him of the state of the Catholics of England, in the hope that he might, on coming hither, solicit James to recal the penal laws, and admit the Catholics into the rank of his other subjects. It was at the same time agreed that Winter should bring over "some confident gentlemen" to help them in the plot, in case the efforts of Velasco should fail; and Catesby named Guido Fawkes. Winter accordingly departed, saw the constable, received full assurance of the good feeling of the King of Spain toward the English Catholics, but was told at the same time that no hope could be given that any decided stipulation in their favor would be included in the treaty. Winter returned with Fawkes, who was yet, however, unacquainted with the particular business for which he was required, and reached London in April, 1604.

Guido or Guy Fawkes was descended from a respectable family in Yorkshire. Of his early life little is known. He enlisted as a soldier of fortune in the Spanish army in Flanders, and was present at the taking of Calais by Archduke Albert in 1598. He is described by Father Greenway, one of the Catholic priests implicated in the plot, who escaped to Rome, and who knew all the conspirators intimately, as "a man of great piety, of exemplary temperance, of mild and cheerful demeanor, an enemy of broils and disputes, a faithful friend, and remarkable for his punctual attendance upon religious observances." His society "was sought by all the most distinguished in the Archduke's camp for nobility and virtue."

A few days after Winter's return, Thomas Percy, confidential steward to his relative the Earl of Northumberland, joined the conspiracy. He had been sent into Scotland, as we have mentioned, and returned full of hopes which, eventually discovered to be fallacious, caused him the deepest distress and mortification. When the conspirators met at Catesby's lodgings in London, Percy, entering last, addressed the others with, "Well, gentlemen, shall we always talk, and never do anything?" It was now agreed that before Catesby disclosed the particulars of his plan, they should all take a solemn oath of secrecy. Accordingly they met a few days after, in a house in the fields then lying beyond St. Clement's Inn, and the following oath was administered to each:—"You shall swear by the blessed Trinity, and by the sacrament you now propose to receive, never to disclose, directly or indirectly, by word or circumstance, the matter that shall be proposed to you to keep secret, nor desist from the execution thereof until the rest shall give you leave." This was sworn by all in the most solemn manner, "kneeling down upon their knees, with their hands laid upon a primer." The plan was now disclosed by Catesby to Percy, and by Winter and Wright to Fawkes; and after some discussion as to the means, they withdrew to an upper room, where they heard mass and received the sacrament from a Father Gerard, a Jesuit missionary. A house contiguous to the houses of parliament was now required, and a fitting one found in the occupation of a tenant of the king's wardrobe-keeper. Percy purchased this man's interest, 24th of May, 1604, on the pretence that it would be a convenience to him in the discharge of the duties of his office as a gentleman



pensioner. The scheme was now to pierce through the thick wall of the parliament-house, and deposit beneath it a quantity of gunpowder and combustibles. Fawkes, being unknown in London, was to keep the key and act as Percy's servant. About this time the meeting of parliament was adjourned until the 7th of February, 1605: the conspirators accordingly postponed operations until November. In the mean time a house was taken in Lambeth, for the purpose of collecting in it gradually the gunpowder, combustibles, &c. required. The custody of this house was entrusted to a new conspirator, Robert Keyes, who had been admitted into the plot at the suggestion of Catesby, after taking the prescribed oath. Robert Keyes, Key, or Kay, is supposed to have been descended from a highly respectable family, connected with the baronets of that name, but at the period of his admission was in indigent circumstances. He was introduced solely from consideration of the personal services he could render, whilst the others were men of property, which they were fully prepared to sacrifice in the affair. By the end of autumn the treaty between the kings of England and Spain was signed, and no stipulation in favor of the Catholics included. The spirit of persecution was now again given free scope. The judges about to depart for their respective circuits received express instructions in the Star-chamber to enforce strictly the penal laws against the Catholics. Whatever scruples the conspirators may have felt, whatever divisions of opinion there might be among them, now disappeared; they met again in London, and determined to proceed with their project.

They entered the house about the 11th of December, 1604, with tools and a quantity of provisions, and endeavored for some time to pierce through the thick wall of the parliament-house. Parliament being further prorogued until the 3rd of October, 1605, during the Christmas holidays the conspirators took three other individuals into their body, namely, John Grant, an accomplished but moody gentleman of Warwickshire, on whom also persecution had done its work; Robert Winter, a brother of Thomas; and Thomas Bates, Catesby's servant, who was admitted solely from the discovery that he had formed much suspicion of the plot. On recommencing their labors in January, 1605, they heard overhead a great rumbling noise, and fully expected they were discovered. Fawkes, however, presently brought them intelligence that one Bright was selling off his coals from a cellar directly under the house of lords. This was immediately taken by Percy, and the mine abandoned. Thirty-six barrels of gunpowder were brought over the water from Lambeth, and deposited in the cellar, mixed with large stones and bars of iron, to make the breach more terrible, and the whole carefully covered with fagots of wood. By May all was prepared. Other individuals were now introduced, namely Sir Everard Digby, of Drystoke, in Rutlandshire, an enthusiastic young man, and Ambrose Rookwood, both of whom were bosom friends of Catesby; in fact, Rookwood's attachment was of that romantic nature that he appears to have joined the plot mainly from its impulses; and lastly, Thomas Tresham, son of the Sir Thomas Tresham before mentioned. This last individual appears to have wanted that desperate fidelity to his brother conspirators, and to their common object, that signalized each of the others. He was rich, and promised considerable pecuniary assistance; but from the moment of his admission into the plot, Catesby was a continual prey to doubts and misgivings. As the day approached the 5th of November, the conspirators met

frequently at White Webbs, a solitary house near Enfield Chase, to arrange their proceedings. Fawkes, it was agreed, should fire the powder by a slow-match, and escape to the ship then hired and waiting for him in the Thames, and pass over instantly to Flanders, and do what he could there for the cause. Now came their greatest difficulty, namely, that of pointing out the individual members of the House of Lords who should be saved, and the means by which warning could be given without exposing the plot or its agents to the risk of discovery. Nearly all had dear friends in the upper house, but Catesby endeavored to calm their apprehensions by assuring them that the peers in question (who were all Roman Catholics) would certainly stay away, seeing how useless was their presence in the face of the overwhelming majority of their religious opponents. "But," said Catesby, "with all that, rather than the project should not take effect, if they were dear to me as mine own son, they must also be blown up."

Tresham, after some vain endeavors to obtain leave to warn Lord Montecagle, or to have the plot altogether postponed, appears to have written, or caused to have written, the following letter to that nobleman:—"My lord, out of the love i beare to some of your friends, i have a caer of your preservacion, therefor i would adyise youe as youe tender your lyf to devyse some excscuse to shift of your attendance at this parleament, for God an man hathe concurred to punish the wickednes of this tyme; and thinke not slightlye of this advertisement, but retyere youre self into youre countrie wheare youe maye expect the event in safti, for thowghe theare be no apparance of anni stir, yet i saye they shall receyve a terrible blowe this parleament, and yet they shall not seie who hurts them. This council is not to be contemned because it maye do youe good, and can do youe no harme, for the dangere is passed as soon as youe have burnt the letter; and i hope God will give youe the grace to make good use of it, to whose holy proteccion i commend youe." Lord Montecagle received this letter on the 26th of October, and there is strong reason to suppose he was prepared to receive it, for on that particular day he supped at his house at Hoxton, a very unusual circumstance; and on receiving it, tossed it over to a gentleman in his service, who the very next morning warned *Thomas Winter*, and through him the other conspirators, that the letter had been sent to the minister Cecil. On the 30th of October, Tresham, who had been in the country, returned to town, and attended the summons of Catesby and Winter at Enfield Chase. They at once charged him with the letter, and if he were its author the moment must have been a terrible one to him, for they had determined to dispatch him instantly upon his exhibiting any marks of confusion or acknowledgment. He, however, denied the charge with a clear voice, assured countenance, and the most solemn oaths, and they let him go.

On returning to London they sent Fawkes to see, by means of certain marks, whether the door had been opened. He returned with an answer in the negative, and they then informed him of the letter, excusing the danger they had subjected him to, on the plea of its necessity. Fawkes replied, that he should have gone had he known of it, and engaged to go daily until the 5th, with the same purpose. The lords of the council had correctly gathered the nature of the danger so darkly intimated in the letter; but these courtiers thought proper to give James the credit of the discovery. It was determined to take no step till the night of the 4th.



On Sunday, the 3rd, the conspirators were again warned by Lord Monteagle's gentleman that the king had seen the letter, and made great account of it. Tresham was once more sought, and he spoke like a man "beside himself." He told the conspirators that to his certain knowledge they were all lost men unless they saved themselves by flight. Still they did not flee. That very night Fawkes went again to keep watch in the cellar. On Monday afternoon, the 4th, the lord-chancellor Suffolk went down to the house, accompanied by Lord Monteagle, and on the pretence that some of the king's stuffs were missing, threw open the door of the cellar and saw Fawkes standing there. They asked him carelessly, who he was. He replied, Mr. Percy's servant; on which one of them observed, "Your master has laid in a good stock of coals," and departed. Fawkes hurried to acquaint Percy of this visit, and then again returned to the cellar. At about two o'clock in the morning (it was now the 5th) Fawkes undid the door and came out to look about him: he was instantly seized and carried to Whitehall. He was questioned in the king's bedchamber, where all parties seem actually to have been afraid of him, helpless as he was, so unchanged was his countenance—so fearlessly scornful his replies and bearing. He avowed his purpose—was sorry it had failed—but would give no satisfaction as to his accomplices. The king asked him how he could have the heart to destroy his children, and so many innocent souls. "Dangerous diseases require desperate remedies," was the reply. A Scotch courtier asked why he had collected so many barrels of gunpowder. Fawkes replied, "One of my objects was to blow Scotchmen back into Scotland." He was tortured the following days; and on the tenth most cruelly, as his signature to a paper wrung from him on that day presents the most unmistakable evidence. Yet after all he does not appear to have told the government a single secret—he confessed nothing but what he was well assured it was useless to conceal.

We must now return to the other conspirators. Catesby and John Wright left London, according to a general arrangement, on the 4th, for Dunchurch, where Sir Everard Digby was collecting a great number of Catholic gentlemen, ostensibly as mere guests, but in reality with a view to a sudden appeal to arms on the successful issue of the plot. Percy and C. Wright left London immediately after Fawkes' arrest; Keyes somewhat later in the morning; whilst Rookwood, who had placed relays of horses the whole distance to Dunchurch, did not start till near noon. He then mounted and rode off with the most desperate speed. On Finchley Common he overtook Keyes, who again parted from him at Turvey; at Brickhill he overtook Catesby and John Wright, and the three soon afterwards came up with Percy and C. Wright. All five swept along at a headlong rate, throwing even their cloaks into the hedge to ride lighter, and about six o'clock in the evening rushed into Lady Catesby's house at Ashby, St. Leger's, Northamptonshire, covered with dirt and half dead with fatigue. Rookwood had thus ridden eighty miles in little more than six hours. Here they found one of the Winters and other Catholic gentlemen; and the whole party rode off to Dunchurch, where they found Sir Everard Digby and a great number of guests. Had these men even now thought less of their cause and more of their own lives, they would have had no difficulty in reaching some port and escaping to a foreign country. But they yet hoped to raise the country in their favor, although the very gentry assembled deserted

them the moment they heard the particulars of the plot and its failure. They were at last attacked in a house at Holbeach, on the borders of Staffordshire; and Catesby, the two Wrights, and Percy, were all killed or mortally wounded; the remaining conspirators, namely, the two Winters, Rookwood, Sir Everard Digby, Grant, Keyes, and Bates, were taken prisoners, either at the same time or shortly afterwards.

On the trial not a single witness was orally examined, the evidences consisting entirely of the written depositions of the prisoners and of a servant of Sir Everard Digby. Nothing appeared to implicate the great body of Catholics (although Garnet and Oldcorne, two Jesuit priests, were afterwards executed for their share in the conspiracy;) in fact, Sir Everard Digby pathetically lamented that he should have sacrificed everything in a cause that the Catholics and the priests universally looked upon as sinful. The conspirators pleaded generally in extenuation of their crime, the sufferings they had undergone on account of their religion—the violated promise of the king—their despair of legal relief—their dread of still harsher treatment—and lastly, their natural desire to reëstablish that religion which they believed alone to be true. They were all condemned to death, which was to be inflicted in that revolting manner which the sanguinary laws of the time justified. They died—part of them on the 30th of January, and the remainder on the 31st—repenting of their purpose, but with courage and fortitude.

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## MR. JOHN POUNDS, "THE GRATUITOUS INSTRUCTOR OF POOR CHILDREN."

**J**OHN POUNDS was born at Portsmouth, England, in 1766. An accident which occurred during his apprenticeship in the Dockyard rendered it necessary for him to learn another trade. He placed himself under an old shoemaker, became enabled to obtain an honest subsistence as a shoe-mender, and for thirty-five years was the occupant of a weather-boarded tenement in his native town.

About thirty years ago John Pounds took upon himself the charge of a feeble little boy, his nephew, whose feet were deformed. He effectually cured this distortion by an ingenious imitation of the ordinary mechanical means recommended by the faculty. His heart warmed towards this poor child, one of a large and poor family, and he became its instructor, a task which gave him great delight. But he was not content to confine his exertions to his little nephew; and his heart being fairly engaged in the duties of education, and seeing the necessity of instructing the poor, he began to seek out pupils amongst the most neglected and destitute. His second pupil was the son of a poor woman, who was herself absent from home the whole of the day endeavoring to obtain her living as a hawker, her child in the meantime being left amidst frost and snow in the open street. Unfortunately there were too many children whose parents were too poor to



provide or too reckless to care for the instruction of their offspring, and scholars became so numerous that his humble workshop, which was about six feet wide and eighteen feet in depth, could not contain so many as he would have willingly taught. Some principle of selection was necessary, and in such cases he always preferred and prided himself on taking those whom he called "the little blackguards." His biographer says: "He has been seen to follow such to the town quay, and hold out in his hand to them the bribe of a roasted potato to induce them to come to school." In the last few years of his life he had generally forty scholars under his instruction at one time, including about a dozen little girls, who were always placed on one side by themselves. Here he pursued his double labors, seated on his stool with his last or lapstone on his knee, and mending shoes, while his pupils were variously engaged, some reading by his side, writing from his dictation, or showing him their performances in accounts. Others were seated on forms, on boxes, and on a little staircase. We give the following interesting account of his modes of tuition in the words of his biographer:—"Without having ever heard of Pestalozzi, necessity led him into the interrogatory system: he taught the children to read from handbills, and such remains of old school books as he could procure. Slates and pencils were the only implements for writing, yet a creditable degree of skill was acquired; and in ciphering, the "Rule of Three" and "Practice" were performed with accuracy. With the very young, especially, his manner was particularly pleasant and facetious: he would ask them the names of different parts of their body, make them spell the words, and tell their uses. Taking a child's hand, he would say—"What is this? Spell it." Then slapping it, he would say—"What do I do? Spell that." So with the ear, and the act of pulling it; and in like manner with other things. He found it necessary to adopt a more strict discipline with them as they grew bigger, and might have become turbulent, but he invariably preserved the attachment of all." He took an enlarged view of the objects which education should comprise, and endeavored to impart valuable practical knowledge to his scholars, teaching them how to cook their own plain food and to mend shoes. He was their doctor and nurse when they had any ailments; and when they were in health, he was not only the master of their sports, but the good old man made playthings for the younger children. He encouraged his pupils to attend Sunday schools, exerting himself to procure clothing for them, in order that they might make a creditable appearance. On Sunday morning they put on their dress at his house, and in the evening it was again restored to him. Some hundreds of persons in all have been indebted to him for all the education which they had ever received at school; and as a necessary consequence, many are now filling stations of credit and respectability, whose elevation poverty and ignorance combined would have prevented, even if these misfortunes had not consigned them to the gaols, the hulks, or the penal settlements. It is said—"he never sought compensation for these labors; nor did he obtain any, besides the pleasure attending the pursuit, the satisfaction of doing good, and the gratification felt when occasionally some manly soldier or sailor, grown up out of all remembrance, would call to shake hands, and return his thanks for what he had done for him in infancy. Indeed some of the most destitute of his scholars have often been saved from starvation, only by obtaining a portion of his own homely meal."

Mr. Pounds died suddenly on the 1st of January, 1839. His biographer touchingly says—"The children were overwhelmed with consternation and sorrow; some of them came to the door next day, and cried because they could not be admitted; and for several succeeding days the younger ones came, two or three together, looked about the room, and not finding their friend, went away disconsolate." Nor was he unlamented by his fellow-townsmen. The services which he rendered to the ignorant and neglected children of the poor entitle him to a place among those humble benefactors of mankind whose deeds of goodness have been, like his, performed in a spirit of rare benevolence. Few indeed will refuse their admiration of that active zeal which acquired for him, a poor man himself, the title of "the gratuitous instructor of poor children." There are in every large town teachers of children full as humble as he, but he brought to his task an innate love for the work, which a true philanthropy kept ever alive, while too frequently they are driven to their reluctant duties by a hard necessity.

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## THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

**I**T is scarcely possible that the space which the Russian empire occupies on the map of the world should not force itself upon the attention. It forms the ninth part of the habitable portion of the globe, and far exceeds in extent the empire of Rome when its dominion extended from the Euphrates to Britain. On the frontiers of China the Russian boundary line is above three thousand miles in length, which is as long as a line drawn from the south-western extremity of Portugal to the north-eastern extremity of Europe, while from the most southern point of Greece to the shores of the frozen ocean is not more two thousand four hundred miles. Great Britain sinks into insignificance in respect to territorial extent when compared with Russia, its greatest length, from the coast of Cornwall to the northern extremity of Scotland, not greatly exceeding 600 miles, and its greatest breadth, at any one point, being only 320 miles. But the distance from Riga, on the Baltic, to the haven of Peter and Paul in Kamtschatka, is above 11,500 miles, and in the Russian Post Book, a line of road is marked out in stages to a distance of 8134 miles. A courier from St. Petersburg to Kamtschatka is above a hundred days in performing the journey and though for the latter part of it the rate of traveling is not very rapid, yet the usual rate is one hundred and sixty miles a day for the first forty days.

When, however, we begin to examine the available strength and resources of such an empire as that of Russia, we find territorial magnitude is one of the causes which least contributes to substantial national power. The population of the empire amounted, in 1836, to 61,000,000, or about one-fifteenth of the human race, but it consists of many different races, some of whom are still in a nomade state, and wander with their flocks over the



immense plains or steppes of Asiatic Russia, while others obtain a livelihood only by fishing and hunting. The plains possess the ordinary qualities of fertility which are usually found in so extensive an area, the soil in many parts being extremely rich, but in others its properties are less promising, and districts occur which offer no inducements whatever to the agriculturist. Between the river Ob and the Frozen Ocean, immense marshes and swampy forests prevail. The 'Government' of Tobolsk, though a thousand miles in width, contains little more than one-half as many inhabitants as the West Riding of Yorkshire; and in the north-eastern extremity of the Russian Empire, Captain Cochrane traveled four hundred miles without meeting a single individual, and in the course of a thousand miles he saw only one habitation. In the 'Government' of Archangel, which is three times as large as Great Britain, and equal in extent to the whole of the Austrian dominions, the population scarcely amounts to one for each square mile. Almost the only accommodations which the traveler finds in the inhospitable regions of Eastern Siberia, are the 'charity yourtes' erected every twenty-five miles by the public authorities. They are simply uninhabited log-houses, about twelve feet square, without windows, and in which shelter only is obtained. This, however, is the least favorable picture of the Russian empire, and is true only in reference to its northern parts. Extending from  $38^{\circ}$  to  $78^{\circ}$ , it presents every variety of climate, from that of Spain and Portugal to the rigors of the arctic circle. The provinces of the central and southern parts are thinly inhabited, though the soil and climate are highly favorable to the progress of industry and population; but in the south there is less of a national spirit than in the north, until we reach the disputed territory of Georgia and Circassia, where the authority of Russia is opposed by force of arms. The process of converting the various people under the Russian dominion to Russian habits and ideas is however proceeding as rapidly as could be expected. In the center and in the south, instead of the thick fogs which brood over the shores of the Frozen Ocean, and a climate which drives men from agriculture to the rivers and forests for food, we find the vegetation of the tropics and the most luxurious productions of the temperate zone. On the banks of the Don the vine is the spontaneous produce of the soil, and attempts are at present making to cultivate the sugar-cane and the indigo plant. Between  $49^{\circ}$  and  $51^{\circ}$  of latitude, in the territory occupied by the 'Line of the Cossacks of Siberia,' melons and the tobacco plant spring up without cultivation. On the banks of the Irtysh Captain Cochrane found the general summer diet consisted of bread with fine melons and cucumbers, grown of course in the open air. "No part of the world," he says, "can offer greater or more certain advantages to the agriculturist than the right bank of this river, where the soil is a rich black mould,"—and it will be recollected it is Siberia of which he speaks,—a country regarded as proverbially inhospitable, which in truth it is over a great part of its surface.

Many of the finest provinces of the south of Russia were almost wholly uncultivated at the commencement of the last century. Soon after the accession of the Empress Catherine, she invited foreign colonists to settle, and 10,000 Germans, Swiss, French, and Swedes were placed in above a hundred villages, chiefly situated between the Volga and the Don. These villages appear to be very prosperous, and are rapidly increasing in population; the births to the deaths are as three to one. There are besides,

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elsewhere, many other colonies of foreigners, particularly of Germans; and settlers are encouraged by exemption from taxes. The land unoccupied is still of immense extent. Captain Jones, who traveled through various parts of the Russian empire in 1826, speaks of extensive districts in the neighborhood of Taganrog, on the sea of Azof, possessing an extremely rich soil, "in many parts perfect garden mould, and capable of producing any or everything," but the population was scanty, and not sufficient for the cultivation of the land. He passed over several tracts of sixty miles of desert in this fine region.

From the preceding statements we may form some idea of the endless diversity of circumstances under which man exists in regions so varied as those comprised in the Russian empire. In one quarter the vegetation is of a tropical character. At another, (Nijnei Kolimsk, on the Frozen Ocean,) "the inhabitants manage, with great labor, to feed a couple of cows; hay is brought eighty miles distant for them. Horses occasionally reach this place, but never spend more than a few days here, during which they are obliged to live on the tops and bark of bushes, or on moss. If we select any process of agriculture, we shall find a variety of means practised to attain the same object, each influenced, in a great degree, by local causes. Take employment of animal power, for instance, and while, south of Tobolsk, we find the sledges drawn by horses, north of that place only the rein deer or dogs are used. In the Crimea, the two-humped camel is employed. In the neighborhood of Taganrog, the plough may be seen at work drawn by ten oxen, of the color and almost of the size of elephants. In other parts, oxen from the steppes of the Volga, the Don, and the Caucasus, are used in transporting goods, but not in tilling the land. Winter, which in some provinces is a season of inactivity and repose, is a period of life, bustle, and animation in others. The wheels are taken off vehicles, and merchandise is transported with extraordinary ease over the frozen surface of the snow. At this season the fares by the diligences are lower than at other periods of the year. In a country of smaller extent, such striking diversities do not exist; but to give any satisfactory account of all those which are most prominent in the various arts of life would occupy too much space.

In Russia there is scarcely anywhere to be met with any great concentration of labor and extensive application of animal and mechanical power. In many provinces the towns are few and the communication between them difficult. There is little or no trade, and manufactures of the simplest kind are yet in their infancy. But the aggregate results of the industry of above sixty millions of people are of course very large.

St. Petersburg is the principal seat of foreign commerce, as Moscow is of the vast internal trade of the empire. The former is the great maritime outlet of the Gulf of Finland, and has an extensive communication with the interior by rivers and canals. Our engraving represents a view of Cronstadt, which is the great naval station of the Russian fleet in the Baltic, and is also the harbor of St. Petersburg, although thirty-one miles distant from that city. The waters of the Neva, on which St. Petersburg stands, are too shallow to admit vessels of large burden; their cargoes are therefore discharged at Cronstadt, and barges are employed in transporting them to the city. Cronstadt is built on an island about seven miles long and one broad, and the mouth of the harbor is strongly defended by

a fortress built on an opposite rock. Here are extensive wet and dry docks, with storehouses and all the great establishments which are requisite for fitting out a fleet and keeping it in repair and fit for service, including foundries for cannon, rope-walks, &c. Canals are constructed which enable a ship of the line to take in her stores close to the warehouses. The Military Canal, capable of containing 35 sail of the line, besides smaller vessels, has become so shallow as to be incapable of admitting large ships. Cronstadt was founded by Peter the Great. In 1703 a ship from Holland was the first merchantman that had ever appeared in the Neva, and the captain and crew were treated with great hospitality by Peter. In 1714 sixteen ships arrived; and from 1300 to 1500 now clear inward annually, of which one-half are usually English. The navigation is open about 190 days in the year—from the middle of May to the end of November. Cronstadt contains many good streets, which are well paved, but, with the exception of the public buildings, the houses are built of wood. The principal public edifices are Admiralty, Naval Hospital, School for Pilots, the Exchange, Custom House and Barracks. In summer, all is life and animation, for the activity of the year is crowded into the space of a few months; but as the winter approaches, and the last ships of the season take their departure, fearful of being locked up by the ice, the scene changes, and all becomes dull. The summer population of Cronstadt amounts to about 40,000, exclusive of soldiers, sailors, and persons employed in the dockyards. The English are more numerous than any other foreigners.

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## THE DANCING MANIA.

**I**T is a well known fact that diseases wear out, not only in individuals, but in nations; the leprosy and the sweating sickness live only in the pages of history, or at any rate, are no longer to be seen in Europe; and St. Vitus' dance, a troublesome, but rarely a formidable disease, is the meager remnant of an epidemic which once afflicted thousands, and spread terror and confusion over large districts. This singular change—this mitigation of the disease from a rabid dance to a mere convulsion or distortion of a few muscles, was, we believe, first distinctly narrated and commented on by Dr. Hecker of Berlin.

It was in the year 1374 that assemblages of men and women were seen at Aix la-Chapelle, who had come out of Germany, and yielded to the uneasiness which oppressed them in the following manner: they formed circles, hand in hand, and continued dancing in the streets for hours together, in a wild delirium, till they fell from sheer exhaustion. They were then in a state of extreme oppression from the tympany which followed these spasmodic ravings; and of this they were relieved by having cloths bound tightly round their waists, or, more simply still, by thumping and trampling on the parts affected. "While dancing, they



neither saw nor heard, being insensible to external impressions through the senses, but were haunted by visions, their fancies conjuring up spirits whose names they shrieked out; and some of them afterwards asserted that they felt as if they had been immersed in a stream of blood, which obliged them to leap so high."

In the worst cases, the attack began with epileptic convulsions; yet, though the patients fell to the ground senseless, and foamed at the mouth, they were able to spring up and begin the dance amid strange contortions. The disease first appeared at Aix-la-Chapelle in July, and in a few months spread over the Netherlands. In many towns the dancers wore garlands in their hair, and had cloths round their waists, which were tightened as soon as the fit was over, to relieve their uneasiness. Many, however, received more benefit from kicks and blows, which the bystanders were ever ready to administer. These morbid pranks were universally attributed to demoniacal possession, and intimidated the people to such a degree, that by express ordinance none but square toed shoes were to be made, the dancers having manifested a strong dislike to the pointed shoes which had come into fashion in 1350, immediately after the great plague. They were extremely irritated at the sight of red colors, and some of them could not bear to see persons weeping. Whether from the exorcisms of the clergy, or from mere exhaustion, this particular epidemic soon died out, and in ten or eleven months the St. John's dancers, as they were called, were no longer to be seen in any of the cities of Belgium. This first set of dancers appeared in Aix-la-Chapelle with St. John's name in their mouths, and it is sufficiently probable that the revels of St. John's day, 1374, gave rise to the disease. The people, says Dr. Hecker, were suffering from wretchedness and want, and the frantic celebration of the festival, then observed with great form, was sufficient to kindle the malady in constitutions already prepared for it. In the language of medicine, starvation was the predisposing cause, and the gayety of the festival the exciting one. The bowels, debilitated by hunger and bad food, were naturally attacked by tympanitis, which will account for the relief obtained by bandaging.

At a later period, in 1418, namely, Strasburg was visited by the dancing plague, and here the aid of St. Vitus was invoked for the cure of the patients. St. Vitus was a Sicilian youth who suffered martyrdom with Modestus and Crescentia, under Diocletian, in the year 303. His fame gradually increased with the progress of time; and at the beginning of the fifteenth century, or perhaps in the fourteenth, the legend came forth that he could and would protect from the dancing mania all who should solemnize the day of his commemoration, and fast upon its eve.

The Strasburg patients were conducted to the chapels of St. Vitus, near Zabern and Rotestein, and, after hearing mass, were led in solemn procession to the altar. It is probable that many were cured there; at all events, they did not dance before the altars of the saint. Burton, in his "Anatomy of Melancholy," tells the chief facts very pleasantly; he says of St. Vitus' dance, "It is so called for that the parties so troubled were wont to go to St. Vitus for help; and, after they had danced there awhile, they were certainly freed. 'Tis strange to hear how long they will dance, and in what manner, over stools, forms and tables. One in red clothes they cannot abide. Music, above all things, they love; and therefore magis-

trates in Germany will hire musicians to play to them, and some lusty, sturdy companions to dance with them. This disease hath been very common in Germany, as appears by those relations of Schenknius, and Paracelsus, in his book of madness, who brags how many several persons he hath cured of it. Felix Platerus (*De Mentis Alienat.*, cap. iii.) reports of a woman in Basle whom he saw, that danced a whole month together. The Arabians call it a kind of *palsy*."

These dancing plagues, however, are by no means the most ancient recorded in history. In 1237 more than a hundred children were seized with this disease, at Erfurt, and went dancing and jumping along the road to Arnstadt. Here they fell exhausted to the ground; many of them died, and the rest were afflicted with a permanent trembling for the rest of their lives. In 1278, two hundred fanatics began to dance upon the bridge over the Moselle at Utrecht, and would not desist till a priest passed, who was carrying the host to a sick person, on which the bridge gave way and they were all drowned. Nay, as early as 1027, a similar event occurred near the convent church of Kolbig.

Eighteen peasants are said to have disturbed divine service on Christmas eve, by dancing and brawling in the churchyard; on which the priest, Ruprecht, cursed them to the effect that they should dance and scream for a whole year without ceasing. This curse was fulfilled, says the legend, so that the sufferers at length sank knee deep into the earth, and remained without nourishment till they were released by the intercession of two pious bishops. Upon this they fell into a deep sleep, which lasted three days; four of them died, and the rest continued to suffer all their lives from a trembling of their limbs.

Whatever fragment of truth there may have been in this story, it was firmly believed during the middle ages, and with the succeeding plagues of a like kind so impressed the minds of the people, that St. Vitus' dance formed the basis of a heavy maledictia: *Dass Dich Sanct Veitstanz ankomme*, i. e. may you be seized with St. Vitus' dance. It was not till the beginning of the sixteenth century that St. Vitus' dance lost its unhallowed character, as the work of demons, and became the subject of medical inquiry. This was due to that great and eccentric genius Paracelsus, who explained the communication of the disease by sympathy with considerable ingenuity, and recommended a curious remedy for the variety which depended on the imagination. "The patient was to make an image of himself in wax or rosin, and by an effort of thought to concentrate all his blasphemies and sins in it. 'Without the intervention of any other person, to set his whole minds and thoughts concerning these oaths in the image;' and when he had succeeded in this, he was to burn the image, so that not a particle of it should remain."

This imaginative method of curing a distemper dependent on the imagination appears to be copied, as Dr. Babington observes, from a classic mode of enchantment. The sorceress made a wax image of the person to be tormented; and by sticking pins into the figure, or melting it before the fire, she hoped to inflict similar evils on the prototype. Thus Simoetha says, in Theocritus:

"Just as I melt this wax before the fire,  
So may young Delphis waste with slow desire."

Nor did this strange fancy expire with the superstition of the ancients, for



it is to be found in the works on magic written in the middle ages. About this time the dancing mania began to decline, so that the severer cases of St. Vitus' became rarer, and in modern times have totally disappeared. Schenck von Graffenberg, a celebrated physician, who died in 1598, speaks of the disease as having been very common only in the time of his forefathers. In the beginning of the next century it was only occasionally observed in its ancient form. Thus in 1623 G. Horst saw some women who annually performed a pilgrimage to St. Vitus' chapel at Drefelhausen, near Weissenstein, in the territory of Ulm. There they waited till the dancing fit came on, continuing day and night in a state of delirium, till they fell to the ground; and when they recovered from this state they felt relieved of the uneasiness and sensation of weight, of which they had complained for weeks previously. Music seems in some measure to have excited the paroxysms of St. Vitus's dance, though by its continuance it soothed the violence of the convulsions.

The Thirty Years' War, which lasted from 1618 to 1648, finally extinguished this singular form of disease; for though the calamities it brought upon Germany were unspeakable, yet, with the vehemence of a purifying fire, they gradually effected the intellectual regeneration of the Germans, and thus put a stop to a malady excited by superstition.

The dancing mania, or in other words, this instinct for curing mental and physical uneasiness by violent and regular motion, has prevailed at other times and places; and the examples given by Dr. Hecker bring down the morbid chain of phenomena from the middle ages to our own times.

Of these varied forms of the same irresistible impetus the most famous by far is tarantism, the disease supposed to be caused by the bite of the tarantula. This insect is a ground spider, found in Apulia, a southern province of Italy, where the malady first made its appearance. The learned Nicholas Perotti, who was born in 1430, and died in 1480, gave the earliest account of this remarkable disorder. Those who were bitten became melancholy and stupified; and in many this condition was combined with an exquisite sensibility to music, so that the first notes of their favorite airs made the patients leap up shouting for joy, and they danced without intermission till they sank to the ground exhausted and almost lifeless. In others, the disease did not take this cheerful turn, but they wept constantly, spending their days in misery and anxiety; and some are said to have died in a paroxysm of laughing or crying.

Tarantism, however, did not originate in the fifteenth century, for Perotti speaks of it as a well known malady. Besides which, "a nervous disorder that had arrived at so high a degree of development must have been long in existence, and doubtless had required an elaborate preparation by the concurrence of general causes." (Hecker, p. 66.) For, according to Dr. Hecker's ingenious and probable theory, an epidemic is the result of a given social state, and reflects as in a mirror the faults and follies, the wants and miseries of the people among whom it appears, as well as the terrestrial and astral influences then prevailing. And as an inundation cannot be the result of any momentary cause, but is produced by long continued rains, which, in their turn, are the effects of still remoter agents, so a deep-rooted disorder spread over a large district, though it may seem to arise suddenly, never does so in reality, but has been prepared by a long series of habits and opinions. Even in individuals the onset of disease is

rarely so sudden as the uninstructed suppose; the hæmorrhage in the brain, which destroys life by apoplexy, commonly results from the long continued ossification or earthy brittleness of an artery; and even an attack of fever supposes a predisposition in the patient, since, of millions exposed to its exciting causes, comparatively few are affected with it. The symptoms produced by the bite of venomous spiders were well known to the ancients; they enumerate among them lividity of the whole body as well as of the face, difficulty of speech, nausea, vomiting, watchfulness, lethargy and fainting; and even death, they add, is sometimes the consequence of the bite. But they do not mention an irresistible inclination to dance among the symptoms, nor even that the patients were accidentally cured by it. The first who approaches the point is Gariopontus, a physician of the eleventh century, who describes a kind of madness in which "the patients, in their sudden attacks, behaved like maniacs, sprang up, throwing their arms about with wild movements, and if perchance a sword was at hand, they wounded themselves and others, so that it became necessary carefully to secure them. They imagined that they heard voices and various kinds of sounds, and if, during this state of illusion, the tones of a favorite instrument happened to catch their ear, they commenced a spasmodic dance, or ran with the utmost energy which they could muster until they were totally exhausted."

These sufferers were looked upon as persons possessed. Gariopontus does not mention the tarantula as a cause of the disease, but says that if it has been produced by the bite of a mad dog, or if the patient foams at the mouth, the patient dies within a week. He calls the malady *anteneasmus*, probably a corruption of *enthusiasmus*.

This curious form of insanity was unquestionably a forerunner of tarantism, the latter having begun probably about 1374, or the period when St. Vitus' dance first appeared in full force; but it was in truth the development of germs already existing, and founded on morbid phenomena of at least two centuries' standing. The pomp of religious processions, the custom of public penance, and the mysticism with which the doctrines of Catholicism were then blended, must have brought many minds into a state fit for the reception of a nervous disorder. Moreover, Italy was ravaged by the oriental plague sixteen times between 1119 and 1340. Small-pox and measles were more destructive than in our times. St. Anthony's fire (erysipelas) was much dreaded, and the leprosy banished its innumerable victims from human society. Then came the black death, the acme of these calamities; and, as individuals become morbidly sensitive under the pressure of misfortune and anxiety, so that slight causes, insufficient to affect the healthy, induce in them severe diseases, so it was with the Italian nation, whose natural sensitiveness was then so much increased that the bite of a venomous spider, or rather the fear of its consequences, was sufficient to excite tarantism—like a spark bringing a heap of combustibles into a blaze. Thus, in the language of Dr. Hecker, "the furies of the *Dance* brandished their scourge over afflicted mortals;" and music, strange to say, while it excited these ecstatic motions in the predisposed, lulled them when at their height—at once the bane and antidote.

At the close of the fifteenth century, tarantism had spread beyond Apulia. Death itself was expected from the wounds inflicted by the venomous spiders, or, in more favorable cases, the patients were said to pine away in



despondent lassitude. The flute or cithern alone afforded relief; at their sound the afflicted opened their eyes and began to dance, at first following the slow movement of the music, and then hurried on with the most passionate vivacity, as the strain changed to a more lively one. The rude clown became graceful, even physical clumsiness giving way before moral excitement. City and village resounded with the fife, the clarionet, and the Turkish drum, and *tarantati*, or persons bitten by the tarantula, were to be seen everywhere, whose medicine was in these instruments. Alexander ab Alexandro saw a young man in a paroxysm of the malady. "He listened with eagerness and a fixed stare to the sound of a drum, and his graceful movements gradually became more and more violent, until his dancing was converted into a succession of frantic leaps, which required the utmost exertion of his whole strength. In the midst of this overstrained exertion of mind and body the music suddenly ceased, and he immediately fell powerless to the ground, where he lay, senseless and motionless, until its magical effects again aroused him to a renewal of his impassioned performances."

The prevailing doctrine of the time was, that though the poison of the tarantula was expelled by music and dancing, yet if the slightest trace remained, this became a permanent germ of the disease; and a complete expulsion seems to have been rarely hoped for; so that relief rather than a cure was expected, and the *tarantati*, like the St. Vitus' dancers, awaited with impatience the return of their annual festivities.

Matthioli, whose commentary on Dioscorides was published in 1565, gives the same sort of account as Alexander. The hopeless languor of the patients, their starting from their couches at the first sound of the melodies composed for their benefit, (the *tarantellas*, as they were called,) the relief they experienced from the most furious dancing, and their sudden exhaustion if the music ceased for an instant, form a lively picture of this singular epidemic.

Among other peculiarities, some patients had an impetuous liking for certain colors; red, though detested by the St. Vitus' dancers, was generally a favorite with the *tarantati*; others preferred black or yellow, which was explained agreeably to the theories of the time, by the doctrine of temperaments. When the desired color appeared, the patient rushed towards it with the eagerness of a lover, and devoured the handkerchief, or whatever it might be, with kisses, while the tears streamed from his eyes.

On one occasion the Cardinal Cajetano went to see the dancing fits of a certain Capuchin friar at a monastery in Tarentum. When the friar, however, saw the purple robe of the Cardinal, even the tarantella which he was dancing could no longer satisfy him, so enamored was he of the rich color of the dress. As he did not immediately attain his object, he fell into a swoon, from which he was recovered by the Cardinal kindly giving him his purple cape. He seized it with ecstasy, pressing it to his forehead, cheeks, and breast, and then again began his frenzied dance.

Another symptom was the extraordinary passion for the sea manifested by the patients. Some, hurried on by an ungovernable impulse, or, in Scottish phrase, *fey*, rushed into the blue waves, while others were contented with ample vessels filled with water, and surrounded by water plants, in which they bathed their heads and arms. But the chief remedy was

music. Attempts, indeed, had been made in ancient times, as we learn from Pliny and Cælius Aurelianus, to soothe the pain of sciatica and the paroxysms of madness by the melody of the flute; and, what comes still nearer the present point, it was done to prevent bad consequences from the bite of a viper. But these anticipations of the method of treating the tarantati were rare. Many, when bitten by the tarantula, died miserably because the tarantella was not played to them. The different kinds of the tarantella were distinguished by names having reference to the various moods of the patient. Thus one was called *panno rosso*, or red cloth—evidently intended from its liveliness, for the wilder patients; while the *panno verde*, or green cloth, “was suited to the milder excitement of the senses caused by green colors, and set to idyllian songs of verdant fields and shady groves.” In the appendix, Dr. Hecker gives various pieces of music for the dance of the tarantati from Athan. Kircher. Their universal termination in a minor key would seem to show, as we might expect, that the joyousness of the dancers was forced, and that amid their fiercest transports, melancholy was the most deeply rooted of their sentiments. The firm persuasion that the bite of the tarantula was highly dangerous, had its effect on the stoutest. “So late as the middle of the sixteenth century, the celebrated Fracastoro found the robust bailiff of his landed estate groaning, and with the aspect of a person in the extremity of despair, suffering the very agonies of death from a sting in the neck, inflicted by an insect which was believed to be a tarantula. He kindly administered, without delay, a portion of vinegar and Armenian bole, the great remedy of those days for the plague and all kinds of animal poisons, and the dying man was, as if by a miracle, restored to life and the power of speech. Now, since it is quite out of the question that the bole could have anything to do with the result in this case, notwithstanding Fracastoro’s belief in its virtues, we can only account for the cure by supposing that a confidence in so great a physician prevailed over this fatal disease of the imagination, which would otherwise have yielded to scarcely any other remedy except the tarantella.”

Ferdinando, a physician in Messapia, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, mentions the existence of skeptics who thought that tarantism was merely a melancholy depending on the imagination. Some of them, however, paid dearly for their incredulity. Thus Jo. Baptist Quinzato, bishop of Foligno, having allowed himself, by way of a joke, to be bitten by a tarantula, found no cure till he danced like other tarantati. Some of the clergy who thought the remedy derogatory to their station, and would, if possible, have abstained from its use, were obliged, after a tormenting delay, to have recourse to the inevitable dance. Hysterical women, moreover, joined the throng, and danced without having been bitten by the tarantula; and impostors were not wanting. Hence we may see why so many physicians and naturalists have denied the existence of tarantism as a real disease, and attributed the whole to fraud or imagination. They tried, indeed, to produce the disease, and failed. But the subjects of their experiments were healthy men, uninfluenced by a belief in the disease; and their negative results could hardly disprove phenomena which had existed for nearly four hundred years. Tarantism declined with the progress of the seventeenth century, and is now limited to single cases.

In setting forth the history of these lively plagues, St. Vitus’ dance and



tarantism, we have given the narration almost in the words of Dr. Hecker, or rather his translator, Dr. Babington; so that our account may so far be considered a faithful abridgment of his work. The remainder, however, we must cut short; partly, lest this article should swell to an unreasonable length, and partly, because the other species of the dancing mania are either less interesting or better known.

A species of the dancing mania exists in Abyssinia, where it is called *Tigretier*, from the Tigré district, where it chiefly prevails. Nathaniel Pearce, who resided in Abyssinia from 1810 to 1819, and afterwards published his life and adventures, gives an account of it. The disease consists of a fever followed by emaciation and unintelligible stuttering. The first remedy, in general, is to have "the assistance of a learned doctor, who reads the gospel of St. John, and drenches the patient with cold water daily for the space of seven days—an application that very often proves fatal." But the most efficacious treatment consists in loud and long continued music; the patient, as in the case of the St. Vitus' dancers and the tarantati, having strength enough to tire out the musicians, though weak in other respects. The Abyssinians of modern times may be considered, in many respects, as representing the Europeans of the middle ages; and it is not surprising, therefore, to find a form of disease which the progress of civilization has expelled from our happier countries, still lingering in Africa. If we may believe Nathaniel Pearce, two other singularities of the dark ages continue to survive there. First, the Abyssinians have a sect of flagellants, called *Zackarys*, who boast that they are descendants of St. George. They scourge themselves till they drain blood, and make wounds with knives to boot. Secondly, this people believe in zoomorphism, or the transformation of men into beasts. The belief of the middle ages was expressed by the word *lycanthropy*, or wolf-manishness: certain persons, it was thought, had the power of changing themselves into wolves, and they were sometimes condemned to the flames for this *uncanny* faculty. Among the Abyssinians, the blacksmiths and potters form a separate caste, and are supposed to be able to turn themselves into hyænas and other beasts of prey.

These African peculiarities are quite as curious as the dancing plagues of Germany and Italy; but as Horace observes that the brave men who lived before Agamemnon are unhonored and unwept for want of a poet, so it has happened that these notable doings in Abyssinia are almost unknown for want of a greater historian than N. Pearce. It is easy to perceive in the accounts handed down to us of the dancing epidemics of the middle ages, how much of the disorder depended on sympathy and imitation. Man, says Aristotle, is an imitative animal; and this great truth holds good in the contortions of disease, as well as in our habits, occupations and amusements. It may seem strange to some that there should exist an instinct of copying the painful struggles of a patient in convulsions, but so it is; and as the avalanche, the farther it has descended, the more easily it collects its reinforcements, so the greater the number of patients attacked the greater is the moral and physical influence which they exercise on those around them.

But these epidemic convulsions spread most widely when they arise from religious enthusiasm. A disorder of this kind began in a Methodist chapel at Redruth, in Cornwall, England, and was diffused with the rapidity of

lightning over the neighboring towns of Camborne, Helston, Truro, Penryn, and Falmouth. The spasms were of frightful vehemence, and at least 4000 persons were affected with them.

Similar attacks took place in the Shetland Islands during a long series of years, and perhaps occasionally occur even now. In one parish an intelligent and pious minister prevented these paroxysms, by which the service in his church was impeded, by observing that the best cure was plunging in cold water; and as his kirk was near a fresh water lake, and the remedy was thus at hand, "not a single Naiad was made," and the fits were stopped by simple fear.

But perhaps the *convulsionnaires*, in France, are the most remarkable examples in modern times of a convulsive mania. There died at Paris, in 1727, the Deacon Pâris, a zealous opponent of the party in the French church who were called Ultramontanists. Four years after his death it was reported that miracles were performed at his tomb. Many of those who visited it were seized with tetanic spasms and other convulsive symptoms, accompanied by quickness and irregularity of the pulse. The *convulsionnaires*, like the St. John's dancers and the *tarantati*, were relieved by blows, and this kind of assistance was called the *grands secours*. Magnetic sleep was first observed in this sect. Their singular proceedings went on without interruption till the year 1790, when the French Revolution, like a strong counter irritation, put a stop to them. Yet, after all, it did not *quite* put an end to them, for this once celebrated sect still existed in 1828, though without the convulsions from which they derived their name.

In conclusion, it is difficult to determine whether we are to look upon the dancing mania merely as an instructive chapter in the history of human weakness, a link between voluntary and involuntary actions, or whether we should not rather consider it as a union of the spiritual and material—a glimpse into the unknown world of psychical phenomena!

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## THE BLACK DEATH.

THE history of medicine, like the art itself of which it recounts the changes, may be divided into two parts. It may be considered as a narrative of the diseases which have afflicted mankind, or of the effects of remedies on these maladies. In either point of view it is most useful to look back on the tale of bygone calamities, and read the future in the past. It is well to know the whole catalogue of remedies that have been tried against a given disorder, lest we should unwittingly repeat vain experiments, and imagine that we are combating a disease by a new method, when we are merely renewing some useless trial of Celsus or Galen; and it is well also to know the progress of ancient distempers, particularly those of the epidemic kind, that we may learn, if possible, from what social evils they spring and by what social improvement they may be prevented.



Every epidemic, indeed, is said to have its own genius; so that Sydenham asserted that when a new one prevailed, he always lost several patients before he learned its peculiarities, and the best methods of encountering them. But it is very possible that this difficulty, felt by the greatest of English physicians, may have arisen from the want of an ample history of disease; for as the stars seen in a winter sky seem innumerable to the uninstructed, but in reality are within the limits of number, so it may turn out that the varieties of epidemics are not really countless, but are capable of being enumerated and studied.

Probably no one has contributed so much to this desirable end as Dr. Hecker of Berlin, who deserves, if any man ever did, the title of "the historian of disease." Three of his works are on the Black Death, the Dancing Mania, and the Sweating Sickness—three noted epidemics.

Great pestilences, he observes, are preceded by changes in the external world. "The powers of creation come into violent collision; the sultry dryness of the atmosphere, the subterranean thunders, the mist of overflowing waters, are the harbingers of destruction."

And as these physical phenomena go before, so moral changes of an equally striking stamp are sure to follow. The excitement produced by a sweeping epidemic is so strong that some considerable alteration for good or for evil necessarily takes place in the moral character of nations, and they either attain a higher degree of virtue, or sink deeper into ignorance and vice. The most memorable example of this theory is a great pestilence of the fourteenth century, which ravaged Europe, Asia, and Africa. It was a true oriental plague and received the name of the "Black Death," from the black spots, indicative of a putrid decomposition, which appeared upon the skin. In Italy it was called *la mortalita grande*, the great mortality.

It is this pestilence which is beautifully described by Boccaccio, in the introduction to his Decameron. The symptoms were those of the ordinary plague, which may be defined as an inflammatory fever, accompanied by swellings of the glands, and commonly running its course in a few days. But the Black Death was also attended by an expectoration of blood, the lungs being attacked with carbuncular inflammation, which must have greatly added to the fatality of the other symptoms. After its first fury, however, was spent, the epidemic passed into the usual form of the oriental plague, hemorrhage being no longer an essential symptom. This fearful pestilence had been preceded by earthquakes and famine; "from China to the Atlantic the foundations of the earth were shaken; throughout Asia and Europe the atmosphere was in commotion, and endangered by its baneful influence both vegetable and animal life."

These convulsions in the frame of the globe began in China in 1333, fifteen years before the plague broke out in Europe. A drought, accompanied by famine, commenced in the country watered by the rivers Kiang and Hoai. Four hundred thousand persons perished in the floods caused by violent torrents of rain, while in the district of Tche, after an unexampled drought, five millions of people are supposed to have been carried off by a plague. Droughts and deluges, famines and earthquakes, appear to have followed each other with fearful rapidity. Mountains fell in; and on one occasion, after three months' rain, seven cities were destroyed by inundations. The fury of the elements did not subside in China till 1347.

In Europe, the signs of terrestrial commotion began in 1348. In Cyprus, the plague had already broken out, when the island was shaken by an earthquake, accompanied by so tremendous a hurricane that the inhabitants fled in all directions. Previous to the earthquake a pestiferous wind blew, of so deadly a stamp that many fell down suddenly and expired in agonies. Dr. Hecker observes that this is one of the rarest of all phenomena, as nothing is more constant than the composition of the atmosphere, naturalists never having been able to discover foreign and pernicious ingredients in the air carrying disease over whole portions of the earth, as is recorded to have taken place in 1348. We must remark, however, that the human body is often a more delicate test than any philosophical instrument; and the Italian *Sirocco* and Egyptian *Khamsin* have far more striking effects on the body than could have been anticipated from their mere heat and dryness. The depressing powers of the east wind, too, do not yet admit of any satisfactory explanation. This poisonous vapor was not confined to Cyprus, for German chroniclers inform us that a thick stinking mist advanced from the east, and spread over Italy.

The earthquakes extended over a great part of Europe; in Carinthia thirty villages together with all the churches, were destroyed; and more than a thousand dead bodies were taken out of the ruins. These earthquakes recurred until the year 1360, in Germany, France, Silesia, Poland, England, Denmark, and even farther north.

Rains, floods, and failures of crops were general; and famine of course followed in their train. In the larger cities of Italy they were obliged, in the spring of 1347, to distribute bread among the poor; at Florence large bakehouses were built, from which, in April, 94,000 loaves, each weighing twelve ounces, were given out every day.

As to the sources of the epidemic, it is probable that there were two; the plague originating in Europe itself, where for centuries it was a common disease, and also being propagated by contagion from the east. The spitting of blood, the infallible attendant on this epidemic when it appeared in its severest form, is not mentioned in all the reports; and it is very possible that the ordinary disease, without the expectoration of blood, was the native plague, while the more malignant species was introduced. The disease, says Dr. Hecker, was a consequence of violent commotions in the earth's organism.

As to the mortality of the Black Death, it is difficult to estimate its ravages numerically. In the fourteenth century Europe was but half civilized, and to count with accuracy is one of the last of social refinements. The accounts, therefore, of the mortality are somewhat vague, and perhaps in some instances exaggerated; though the largeness of the numbers tallies well with the entire depopulation of many cities and countries. In China, more than thirteen millions are said to have died; and it was reported to Pope Clement, at Avignon, that in the East 24,000,000 had fallen victims to the plague; and this estimate probably did not include China. At the height of the epidemic, from 10,000 to 15,000 are said to have died daily at Cairo—a number equal to those carried off in the whole course of some great modern plagues.

In Caramania and Cæsarea none were left alive; on roads, in camps and caravanseras, unburied bodies alone were seen; Cyprus lost almost all its inhabitants; and in the Mediterranean, as well as the North Sea,



ships without crews were seen driving along at the mercy of the winds and waves. In some of the towns of Europe the deaths from the Black Plague were as follows:—

In Florence, 60,000; in Venice, 100,000; in Marseilles, (in one month,) 16,000; in Siena, 70,000; in Paris, 50,000; in St. Denys, 14,000; in Avignon, 60,000; in Strasburg, 16,000; in Lubeck, 9,000; in Basle, 14,000; in Erfurt, at least 16,000; in Weimar, 5,000; in Limburg, 2,500; in London, at least 100,000; in Norwich, 51,000. To which may be added—Franciscan Friars in Germany, 124,434; Minorites in Italy, 30,000.

Alfonso I. died of it at the siege of Gibraltar, in March, 1350. Johanna, queen of Navarre, daughter of Louis X., and Johanna of Burgundy, wife of King Philip of Valois, also fell a sacrifice to this plague, as well as great numbers of other distinguished persons. Five hundred died daily in the Hotel Dieu, under the care of the Sisters of Charity, who displayed the finest traits of Christian heroism. They, too, died, evidently from contagion, but there was no deficiency of candidates to fill up their ranks and devote themselves to the sacred calling.

The churchyards were soon unable to contain the dead. At Avignon, the pope found it necessary to consecrate the Rhone, that bodies might be thrown into it without delay. At Vienna, the interments of corpses in the churches and churchyards was forbidden, and the dead were placed by layers, in thousands, in six large pits outside the city, as had been already done at Cairo and Paris.

In many places it was rumored, that plague patients were buried alive, as may sometimes happen through senseless alarm and indecent haste; and thus the horror of the distressed people was every where increased. In Erfurt, after the churchyards were all filled, 12,000 corpses were thrown into eleven great pits; and the like might more or less exactly be stated with respect to all the larger cities. Funeral ceremonies, the last consolation of the survivors, were everywhere impracticable.

In Germany, according to an account which Dr. Hecker thinks probable, there died "only" 1,244,000 inhabitants. But this country was more spared than others; while Italy, on the contrary, is said to have lost one-half of its inhabitants. It is said that in all England scarcely one-tenth of the population remained alive, but this is clearly an exaggeration. Yet these immense losses were soon repaired. Marriages, of course, became more numerous; and the population of great cities would be rapidly made up by immigration from less important places. The arts of peace and war proceeded as usual; the battle raged, the spinning wheel went round, the fields gave their wonted harvest, and in a few years the Black Death, though never to be utterly forgotten, would be far less frequently remembered. So vast and terrible an event, or rather so dreadful a series of events, must have had deep moral effects, for good or evil. So awful a calamity, desolating whole provinces, and making death the familiar topic of all conversation, and the common theme of every man's thoughts, must assuredly have produced the reformation of many an offender, and infused some sense of religion into the dullest mind. Yet, as Luther observed that "human nature is like a drunken trooper on horseback, for if you set it up on one side, down it falls on the other," so in this memorable era affrighted Europe leaped over religion into fanaticism.

The most remarkable example of this distorted zeal was the reëappearance of the Flagellants. As far back as the eleventh century many believers did penance by flagellation; but St. Anthony, in 1231, is said to have been the author of these solemn processions. In 1334, fourteen years before the great plague, the sermon of Venturinus, a Dominican friar, induced more than ten thousand persons to undertake a pilgrimage, which they performed, scourging themselves in the churches. In 1349, two hundred Flagellants first entered Strasburg, where they were warmly received, and made many converts. At length their sanctity was questioned, and the doors of houses and churches were shut against them. The wild and unruly conduct of these enthusiasts was far from agreeable to the Romish Church, whose authority they disregarded so far as even to give absolution to each other. Their heretical excesses were condemned by authority; and as the Flagellants gradually lost their popularity, the laws enacted against them were easily executed; so that at last these unfortunate fanatics were persecuted in several places with relentless severity. Bishop Preczlaw of Breslaw condemned one of their masters to death, and had him publicly burnt. Yet this particular form of fanaticism by no means died out with the plague of the fourteenth century, and processions of the Crossbearers, or Flagellants, were seen in Italy as late as 1710.

But the moral convulsion resulting from this epidemic produced a result worse than the worst excesses of the Flagellants, we mean the cruel persecutions of the Jews. They were suspected of having poisoned the wells or infected the air, and were, in consequence, sometimes given up to the fury of the populace, and sometimes murdered, according to the forms of law, by the sentence of tribunals. They were put to the torture, until the required answer was obtained, and then burnt alive on their own evidence. At Spire, the Jews, driven to despair, burned themselves in their own houses; at Esslingen they consumed themselves in their synagogue.

Fanaticism and persecution naturally went hand in hand; and the entrance of the Flagellants into a city would be a signal for the massacre of the Jews. In Mayence alone, which the Flagellants entered in August, 12,000 Jews are said to have been put to a cruel death.

An account of so remarkable an epidemic would not be complete without some account of the preventive and curative measures by which it was attempted to combat the pestilence, however ineffectual they may have been. The physicians of the fourteenth century did what human intellect could do, in the actual state of the medical art. The medical faculty of Paris, the most celebrated of the time, gave their opinion at length as to the causes of the pestilence and the best means of checking its progress. They supposed the disease to arise from vapors produced by the influence of the heavenly constellations; and predicted that the mist caused by these astral influences would be converted into a stinking deleterious rain, by which the air would be purified. To protect every one from the effects of this rain, they advised that large fires should be kindled of vine-wood, green-laurel, or other green wood; and that large quantities of wormwood or chamomile should be burnt both in the market places and in houses. Among their precautions, one is that fat people should not sit in the sunshine. If it rain, a little treacle is to be taken after dinner. By this we apprehend is not to be understood the treacle procured by refining sugar, which would scarcely be known at that time, but the Venice treacle, or



*theriacæ*, a celebrated compound of honey and aromatics. It is not, however, in this paper of the Parisian college, that Dr. Hecker thinks the medical tact of that age is to be found; but he apologizes for its weakness from the painful necessity under which the Faculty found themselves, "of being wise at command, and of firing a point-blank shot of erudition at an enemy who enveloped himself in a dark mist, of the nature of which they had no conception."

Gentilis of Foligno, Guy de Chauliac, and Galeazzo di Santa Sofia, contemporary physicians, all wrote on this plague, and showed sufficient good sense in their advice. They were all aware that it was contagious; so that Dr. Maclean's supposition, that the doctrine of contagion was first promulgated in 1547, is quite erroneous.

Santa Sofia was in favor of bleeding and purgatives, but against bleeding till fainting was produced; and he advised strengthening of the heart and prevention of putrescence; appropriate regimen; improvement of the air; and the treatment of swelled glands and inflammatory boils with emollient or even stimulant poultices, (such as those made with mustard or the bulbs of the lily,) as well as with red-hot gold and iron. Lastly, he recommended attention to prominent symptoms, that is to say, that each case should be treated according to its characteristic peculiarities, and not merely with reference to the name of the disease.

The first enactment for the separation of the infected from the healthy originated with Viscount Bernabo, and is dated January 17th, 1374.

Dr. Hecker does not say when the Black Death terminated, except, parenthetically, in a passage where he speaks of Valescus of Tarenta, "who, during the last visitation of the Black Death, in 1382, practised as a physician at Montpellier." In the majority of places, it had ceased, we believe, long before this. On the whole, whether we consider the vast surface of the world ravaged by the Black Death, or the multitudes whom it swept away, it must be allowed a frightful preëminence, and must probably be considered as the greatest pestilence on record.

## THE SEA-COAST OF PALESTINE.

**T**HE sea-coast of Palestine is not naturally adapted for a maritime people; there is not a good harbor to be found on it. The best is that of Acre, of which, though it is called "the maritime key of Palestine," Dr. Clarke says, "The port is indeed bad, but it is better than any other along the coast." Joppa (now Jaffa or Yaffa,) which was the only port the Jews possessed while they existed as an independent nation, at least the only place entitled to the name of a national port, is one of the worst on the Mediterranean, and only rose into importance on account of its vicinity to Jerusalem, from which it lies about forty miles west. Even

SEA COAST OF PALESTINE.





the slip of coast which was possessed by that wonderful people, the Phœnicians, is not at all adapted to the wants of modern navigation. Speaking of the country when it formed a portion of the Roman empire, Gibbon, in his summary way, says, "Phœnicia and Palestine were sometimes annexed to, and sometimes separated from, the jurisdiction of Syria. The former of these was a narrow and rocky coast; the latter was a territory scarcely superior to Wales, either in fertility or extent. Yet Phœnicia and Palestine will forever live in the memory of mankind; since America as well as Europe, has received letters from the one and religion from the other." In a note he adds, "The progress of religion is well known. The use of letters was introduced among the savages of Europe about fifteen hundred years before Christ; and the Europeans carried them to America about fifteen centuries after the Christian era. But in a period of three thousand years the Phœnician alphabet received considerable alterations as it passed through the hands of the Greeks and Romans."

By looking along the outline of the coast, as delineated in a map, the reader will remark the more important names which give interest to a shore naturally rugged and dangerous. Gaza and Askalon, the "two brides," will remind him of the Philistines, who gave the name of Palestine to the country, and of their great antagonist Samson, who carried off the gates of the one, and provided himself with raiment from the inhabitants of the other. It was prophesied that "Gaza shall be forsaken and Askalon a desolation." The present Gaza is a modern town that arose on the ruins of the old. Alexander the Great was twice wounded during his siege of Gaza, and the town also suffered from a furious insurrection of the Jews; and this latter circumstance is considered to be an explanation of Luke's words, when in recording the directions which Philip received, he says that he was ordered to go "towards the south unto the way that goeth down from Jerusalem unto Gaza, *which is desert.*" As for Askalon, the birth-place of Herod the Great, it is "a desolation." Farther on is Joppa, now Jaffa, beyond it Cæsarea, which arose, as it were, in a day, at the will of Herod, then the famous Acre, with the noble promontory of Carmel; and beyond these again the territory of the once powerful "merchant-princes," whose ships, in the far-past history of our world, floated on unknown seas, and carried the civilizing influence of commerce to the most distant "isles of the Gentiles." The whole line of coast is comparatively a ruin; but the silence and desolation of that part of it which was once animated by the life and bustle of the people of Tyre and Sidon, renders it perhaps as affecting a scene as the traveler can contemplate.

The laws, customs, and institutions of the Jews did not dispose them to become a maritime people; and accordingly, in the best days of their monarchy, when they aspired to the possession of a navy, their neighbors, the Phœnicians, were their instructors, guides, merchants, and carriers. After the fall of Tyre, and when Palestine became a portion of the Roman empire, there was more commercial activity in the Jewish ports, and their rulers gave it encouragement. Herod the Great, who, though he was a bad man and a tyrant, had yet a very enterprising and magnificent spirit, built the city of Cæsarea, of which Josephus gives the following account:—

"Upon his observation of a place near the sea, which was very proper for containing a city, and was before called Strato's tower, he set about getting a plan for a city there, and erected many edifices with great dili

gence all over it, of white stone. He also adorned it with most sumptuous palaces and large edifices for containing the people; and, what was the greatest and most laborious work of all, he adorned it with a haven that was always free from the waves of the sea. Its largeness was not less than the Peiræus, at Athens, and had towards the city a double station for the ships. It was of excellent workmanship, which was the more remarkable, being built in a place that of itself was not suitable to such noble structures, but was perfected by materials from other places, at very great expense. The city is situate in Phœnicia, [strictly, Cæsarea was in Judea, not on the slip of sea-coast occupied by the people of Tyre and Sidon:] in the passage by sea to Egypt, between Joppa and Dora, which are lesser maritime cities, and not fit for havens, on account of the impetuous south winds that beat upon them, which rolling the sands that come from the sea against the shores, do not admit of ships lying in their station; hence the merchants are generally there forced to ride at their anchors in the sea itself. So Herod endeavored to rectify this inconvenience, and laid out such a compass towards the land, as might be sufficient for a haven, wherein the great ships might lie in safety. And this he effected by letting down vast stones of above fifty feet in length, not less than eighteen in breadth, and nine in depth, into twenty fathoms deep; and as some were less, so were others bigger than those dimensions. This mole, which he built by the seaside, was two hundred feet wide; the half of which was opposed to the current of the waves, so as to keep off those waves which were to break upon them; but the other half had upon it a wall, with several towers, the largest of which was named Drusus, and was a work of very great excellence, and had its name from Drusus, the son-in-law of Cæsar, who died young. There was also a great number of arches where the mariners dwelt. There was also before them a quay, which ran round the entire haven, and was a most agreeable walk to such as had a mind to that exercise. But the entrance or mouth of the port was made on the north quarter, on which side was the stillest of the winds of all in this place. And the basis of the whole circuit on the left hand, as you enter the port, supported a round turret, made very strong, to resist the greatest waves; while on the other hand, stood upright two vast stones joined together, and those each of them larger than the turret, which was over against them. Now there were edifices all along the circular haven, made of the most polished stone, with a certain elevation, whereon was erected a temple, that was seen a great way off by those who were sailing for that haven, and had in it two statues, the one of Rome and the other of Cæsar. The city itself was called Cæsarea [like several other cities, in compliment to the emperor,] and was also built of fine materials and was of a fine structure. Nay, the very subterranean vaults and cellars had no less of architecture bestowed on them, than had the building above ground. Some of these vaults carried things at even distances to the haven and to the sea; but one of them ran obliquely, and bound all the rest together, that both the rain and the filth of the citizens were carried off with ease, and the sea itself, upon the flux of the tide from without, came into the city, and washed it all clean. Herod also built therein a theatre of stone, and on the south quarter, behind the port, an amphitheatre also, capable of holding a vast number of men, and conveniently situated for a prospect to the sea. This city was thus finished in twelve years, at the expense of Herod."



Cæsarea, thus magnificently built and adorned, became the virtual capital of Judea under the Romans. It was Herod's royal residence, and the residence of the Roman governors. Herod founded games, to be celebrated every fifth year, in honor of Cæsar, and of the building of the place; and it was at one of the celebrations of these games, that his grandson, Herod Agrippa, died miserably, as recorded in the 12th chapter of the Acts of the Apostles. It was the scene of Paul's imprisonment, when he was rescued from the violence of the mob, and sent down from Jerusalem, out of the reach of the conspirators; and here he made his celebrated orations, the one in defence of himself, when he was accused of being "a pestilent fellow," and the other before King Agrippa, in explanation of his character and conduct. From hence also he embarked on his perilous voyage, after he had made his "appeal unto Cæsar."

Cæsarea subsisted with various fluctuations till after the Crusades. Dr. Clarke, who viewed Cæsarea from off the coast, says, "Perhaps there has not been in the history of the world an example of any city that in so short a space of time rose to such an extraordinary height of splendor as did this of Cæsarea, or that exhibits a more awful contrast to its former magnificence, by the present desolate appearance of its ruins. Its theatres, once resounding with the shouts of multitudes, echo no other sounds than the nightly cries of animals roaming for their prey. Of its gorgeous palaces and temples, enriched with the choicest works of art, and decorated with the most precious marbles, scarcely a trace can be discerned. Within the space of twelve years after laying the foundation, from an obscure fortress (called the tower of Strato, as it is said, from the Greek who founded it,) it became the most celebrated and flourishing city of all Syria."

Mr. Buckingham, in his "Travels in Palestine," gives a minute description of the ruins of Cæsarea, and says that they fully justify the description given by Josephus of its magnificence. Travelers still more recently speak of the utter desolation of the place. Captain Skinner, looking down from the promontory of Carmel, says, "The first place towards Jaffa is the modern village of Atlieb, the Castel Pelegrino of the Crusades, and the Dor of the Hebrews. Beyond that—its columns and buttresses, a confused mass, stretching into the waves, over which, from this distance even, the surf may be seen to break—is the celebrated city of Cæsarea."

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## POMPEY'S PILLAR.

**S**CARCELY any one of the monuments of antiquity is involved in so much mystery and uncertainty, or has afforded so wide a field for conjecture and the speculations of the scientific, as that known as Pompey's Pillar; yet it is not one of those relics that have only recently been brought to light, but, on the contrary, is so intrusively visible as to be descried for miles around; and is one of the first objects discerned by ships making this part of the coast of Egypt, which is everywhere very low. All



POMPEY'S PILLAR.



travelers agree that its present appellation is a misnomer; yet it is known that a monument of some kind was erected at Alexandria to the memory of Pompey, which was supposed to have been found in this remarkable column. Mr. Montague thinks it was erected to the honor of Vespasian. Savary calls it the Pillar of Severus. Clarke supposes it to have been dedicated to Hadrian, according to his reading of a half-effaced inscription in Greek on the west side of the base; while others trace the name of Diocletian in the same inscription. No mention occurring of it either in Strabo or Diodorus Siculus, we may safely infer that it did not exist at that period; and Denon supposes it to have been erected about the time of the Greek emperors or of the caliphs of Egypt, and dates its acquiring its present name in the fifteenth century. With regard to the inscription, we may observe, that it might have been added after the erection of the column.

Pompey's Pillar stands on a small eminence about midway between the walls of Alexandria and the shores of lake Marcotis, about three-quarters of a mile from either, and quite detached from any other building. It is of red granite; but the shaft, which is highly polished, appears to be of earlier date than the capital or pedestal, which have been made to correspond. It is of the Corinthian order; and while some have eulogized it as the finest specimen of that order, others have pronounced it to be in bad taste. The capital is of palm leaves, not indented. The column consists only of three pieces—the capital, the shaft and the base—and is poised on a centre stone of breccia, with hieroglyphics on it, less than a fourth of the dimensions of the pedestal of the column, and with the smaller end downward; from which circumstance the Arabs believe it to have been placed there by God. The earth about the foundation has been examined, probably in the hopes of finding treasure; and pieces of white marble (which is not found in Egypt) have been discovered connected to the breccia above mentioned. It is owing, probably, to this disturbance, that the pillar has an inclination of about seven inches to the south-west. This column has sustained some trifling injury at the hands of late visitors, who have indulged a puerile pleasure in possessing and giving to their friends small fragments of the stone, and is defaced by being daubed with names of persons, which would otherwise have slumbered unknown to all save in their own narrow sphere of action; practices which cannot be too highly censured, and which an enlightened mind would scorn to be guilty of. It is remarkable, that while the polish on the shaft is still perfect to the northward, corrosion has begun to affect the southern face, owing probably to the winds passing over the vast tracts of sand in that direction. The centre part of the cap stone has been hollowed out, forming a basin on the top; and pieces of iron still remaining in four holes, prove that this pillar was once ornamented with a figure, or some other trophy.

The operation of forming a rope ladder to ascend the column, has been performed several times of late years, and is very simple: a kite was flown, with a string to the tail, and, when directly over the pillar, it was dragged down, leaving the line by which it was flown across the capital. With this a rope, and afterwards a stout hawser, was drawn over; a man then ascended and placed two more parts of the hawser, all of which were pulled tight down to a twenty-four-pounder gun lying near the base, (which it was said Sir Sidney Smith attempted to plant on the top;) small spars were then lashed across, commencing from the bottom, and ascending each

as it was secured, till the whole was complete, when it resembled the rigging of a ship's lower masts. The mounting this solitary column required some nerve, even in seamen; but it was still more appalling to see the Turks, with their ample trowsers, venture the ascent. The view from this height is commanding, and highly interesting in the associations excited by gazing on the ruins of the city of the Ptolemics, lying beneath. A theodolite was planted there, and a round of terrestrial angles taken; but the tremulous motion of the column affected the quicksilver in the artificial horizon so much as to preclude the possibility of obtaining an observation for the latitude. The two readings of the inscription are as follows:

"To Diocletianus Augustus, most adorable Emperor, tutelar deity of Alexandria, Pontius, Prefect of Egypt, dedicates this."

"Posthumus, Prefect of Egypt, and the people of the metropolis, (honor,) the most revered Emperor, the protecting divinity of Alexandria, the divine Hadrian Augustus."

Of these readings, which certainly have but little resemblance, the former is considered the better. It will be recollected that some of the characters cannot be traced at all, and others but faintly; and the various ways of supplying the deficiencies, according to the ideas of the advocates of either, will account for the very wide difference that exists between them.

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## JOHN HANCOCK.

**A**MONG the remarkable men whose names will forever stand part and parcel of the Declaration of Independence, Hancock, whose bold signature first strikes the eye, was, perhaps, all things considered, one of the most remarkable. He put most at risk, so far as fortune and its appliances were concerned, for he was the richest man in the country. He inherited the business and fortune of a millionaire merchant uncle, and was the Abbot Lawrence of his day. When he was first elected to the provincial Legislature, Adams said to a friend, *Boston has done a wise thing to-day—she's made that young man's fortune her own*; and the prophecy was literally fulfilled, for it was all devoted to the public use.

The contrast between him and Adams was very great; Adams was poor, and held in great contempt the style and show of fortune. Hancock kept a magnificent equipage, such as is not known in America; his apparel was embroidered with gold and silver; he rode with six beautiful bays—he was fond of dancing, music, routs, parties, rich wine, dinners, and all that class of things, called elegant pleasures.

During the siege of Boston, General Washington consulted Congress as to the propriety of bombarding the town. Hancock was President, and after the reading of Washington's letter, a motion was made to go into Committee of the Whole, to enable Mr. Hancock to give his opinion, as he was deeply interested—all his property being in houses and real estate. He left the chair, and addressed the chairman as follows: "It is true, sir, that nearly all I have in the world is in the town of Boston; but if the expulsion of the British troops and the liberties of my country demand that they be burnt to ashes, issue the order, and let the cannon blaze away."



## SIR JOHN FRANKLIN.

**I**N 1819, Sir John Franklin, impressed by the discoveries of Hearne, Mackenzie and others, along the northern edge of this continent, undertook to trace the looked-for passage from the mouth of the Coppermine river, eastward, by the shore, towards the waters of Hudson's Bay. Proceeding from one of the forts of the Hudson's Bay Company, attended by Mr. Back and Dr. Richardson, since distinguished for their explorations, he traced the Coppermine to the ocean. Thence his party, with their boats and sledges, journeyed along the coast for 600 miles; till at last, having reached a point which they called Turnagain, and finding their provisions falling short, they quitted the sea and took up their march, of fifty days, along Hood's river, towards Fort Enterprise. In September, 1820, commenced the dreariest and most miserable of journeys. The expedition consisted of Franklin, Dr. Richardson, Mr. Hood, a young officer, Mr. Back, Hepburn, a sailor, ten Canadians with French names, and two Indians. The country was desolate, barren, and covered with snow. In a few days their pemmican failed, and their chief resource was a sort of moss called *tripe de roche*. Though they succeeded in shooting a few animals, their sufferings from hunger and cold soon became dreadful, as they slowly made their way through snow-drifts and ravines, and over torrents, in the direction of Point Lake. Franklin fainted from exhaustion and want of food. Mr. Back and three men, were hurried in advance toward Fort Enterprise, to hasten relief, while Franklin and the rest moved painfully on, at the rate of five or six miles a day. They were soon reduced to eat the leather of their old shoes, and two Canadians dropped down and perished in the snow. Dr. Richardson, Hepburn, and Michel, the Iroquois, remained with poor Mr. Hood under a tent, while Franklin and the rest pushed on towards the fort. When the latter reached it at last, after having left three more Canadians to perish in the track, they found it deserted and foodless, and, looking into each other's emaciated faces, burst into tears. Sending part of his men forward, Franklin was forced to stay at the fort, with three others, also unable to proceed—and he and they had no food but the soup of old bones picked up or dug from the ground. In a day or two they were joined by Richardson and Hepburn, who informed him that Michel, the Iroquois, had assassinated Mr. Hood, and that the doctor had shot him in turn. On the first of November, two Canadians died at the fort, and the survivors could not remove them. On the 7th, Indians came, bringing provisions, and they were all saved, when nearly at the last gasp. Certainly Sir John Franklin did not proceed on his last voyage to the Polar seas, uninured to the dreariest and most perilous chances of that terrible region.

While Franklin was suffering in this overland expedition, Lieutenant Parry was making his most successful voyage. In May, 1819, he proceeded with the *Hecla* and *Griper* to Lancaster Sound, where he proved the Croker Mountains to be as visionary as those of Hy Brasil, off the north-west coast of Ireland; and, advancing through the strait which he named after

Mr. Barrow, Secretary of the Admiralty, made the most pronounced discoveries of modern research in that region. He first saw and named Wellington Channel, Regent's Inlet, Bathurst's, Byam Martin's, Melville's, and other islands, now called the Parry Islands. He also saw and defined Bank's Land, in the south-western distance. These places have ever since been the great landmarks of northern research; no navigator has gone beyond them, and all subsequent discoveries have been made about them, and with reference to them. Traveling over Byam Martin's Island, Parry's officers discovered remains of Eskimo huts, and traces of oxen, hares, reindeer, and other creatures, proving that in the neighborhood of Polynya there is no want or difficulty of animal existence. This voyage was a fortunate one in every respect. Parry ran rapidly in, made his discoveries, wintered, and came out again in the open season. His next voyage, in 1821, with the *Fury* and *Hecla*, was to the lower waters—those of Hudson's Bay; and he spent the winter of that year in Fox's Channel. He passed two winters in the north, and explored Melville's Peninsula. In 1823, Captain Clavering conveyed Captain Sabine to Spitzbergen and Greenland, to make experiments determining the configuration of the earth. Lyons proceeded in 1824, with the intention of examining Melville's Peninsula, and going thence, if possible, to Franklin's Point Turnagain, on the American coast. But the expedition was so shaken about and distressed, that it was forced to return.

In the spring of 1824, Parry, with the ships *Hecla* and *Fury*, made his third northern voyage. He went into Barrow's Straits, and wintered at Port Bowen, on Regent's Inlet. Next year he proceeded westward, and examined the coast of North Somerset. Here, on the eastern shore of the inlet, he was forced to leave the *Fury* and return home.

In 1826, Captain Franklin went down the river Mackenzie, and explored the coast to the westward, 374 miles. His party returned to England in October, 1827. In 1826, Captain Beechy sailed into the Pacific, and entered Behring's Straits. But he made no eastward progress.

Parry undertook his fourth voyage in 1827. He went to Spitzbergen, and, leaving his ship, proceeded with sledges, overland, towards the pole, which is about 600 miles from Hakluty's headland. But the attempt was fruitless. While he and his men were creeping up on boats and sledges, to between 82° and 83°, beyond which none have ventured, the ice they were on was moving slowly to the south, and their severe labor was all thrown away.

In 1829, Captain John Ross, who had suffered a good deal in reputation from the treacherous Croker Mountains, resolved to make another effort. As government would not encourage him, he was indebted for his outfit to Mr. Felix Booth, a London distiller, and subsequently a knight and lord mayor, who, in return for his liberality, has received an Arctic immortality—an enduring monument in icebergs—in those regions bearing the names Boothia, Felix, Lord Mayor, as the reader may see on glancing at the map. Indeed, he should do more than glance at it; for without it, any disquisition on the northern discoveries will make but a confused impression on his memory. Captain Ross went into Barrow's Straits, and entered Regent's Inlet. He visited the land on the west coast, and called it Boothia. He wintered there, and in 1831, his nephew, James C. Ross, planted the English flag on the magnetic pole, in latitude 70° 17' north,



and 96° 46' 44" west longitude, where the dip of the needle was nearly vertical. In April, 1832, finding his ship, the *Victory*, could not be extricated from the ice, Ross left it, and journeyed to the Fury beach for boats that were lying there. With these, after vast labor, he tried to get out of Regent's Inlet; but he was obliged to give up the attempt, and retrace his steps to the wreck of the *Fury*, where he passed his fourth winter, of 1832-'3. In August, 1833, he made one more vigorous effort to get out, and having passed in the boats through Barrow's Straits, he and his men were happily picked up, in Lancaster Sound, by the whaler *Isabella*, the captain's old ship of discovery. The people of England believed Ross and his crew had perished, and, in the midst of their doubts and regrets, the nation was surprised and rejoiced by the news of his rescue. He has retrieved everything, and the Croker Mountains were no longer remembered to his prejudice.

In 1833, Captain Back made a journey from the Hudson's Bay station to the Polar sea. He went eastward beyond Franklin's Point Turnagain, and traced the coast in the direction of Repulse Bay, a point within Hudson's waters. He returned in 1835, and sailed in 1836 up through Hudson's Straits, to try the chance of finding a way across the interval lying between his late land exploration on the west, and the bottom of Regent's Inlet. But the voyage was unsatisfactory. In 1836, Dease and Simpson went from a fort of the Hudson's Bay Company, along the Mackenzie to the Arctic coasts, and examined the latter, but with no remarkable result. In 1845, other expeditions were set on foot. One was that of Dr. John Rae, who proceeded from Fort Churchill, on Hudson's Bay, in July, 1846, and, traveling arduously northward with boats and sledges, discovered Boothia to be a peninsula. The other expedition was that of Sir John Franklin.

From the foregoing it will be perceived that after the first voyage of Parry, all other progress was, so to speak, carried on within and below his extreme delineations. No one had ventured beyond Cape Walker, in the direction of Banks' Land, to the west and south of North Somerset, or gone beyond Parry's Islands to the north-west, or to the north, through Wellington Channel. Neither had any attempt been made from Baffin's Bay, above Lancaster Sound, to enter those remote waters said to flow round the pole. And, indeed, it was no wonder that the explorers preferred the more known and southerly latitudes of Repulse Bay, Boothia, Coronation Gulf, and Victoria Land, to the remoter solitudes of the more northern ways; while, at the same time, the narrowed space between the extreme of continental exploration from the west, and the coasts of Regent's Inlet and Hudson's Bay, very naturally led men to look for the passages in that direction.

Sir John Franklin was born at Spilsby, in Lincolnshire, in the year 1786. He entered the English navy in 1800, as midshipman. He served in the *Polyphemus*, and, as a middy on board, witnessed the battle of the Baltic before Copenhagen, where Nelson paid back the old Corsair compliments of Regnar Lodbrok. Young Franklin went afterwards with Captain Flinders on a voyage of discovery to the coasts of New Holland, and was shipwrecked on a coral reef in August, 1803. Sir John was early inured to those perils and privations which attended his course in life. He was signal midshipman on board the *Bellerophon*, in the sea-fight of Trafalgar,

in 1805, reading through the smoke the signs of battle, as they flew from mast to mast. In 1808, Lieutenant Franklin escorted the expatriated Braganzas—flying before Junot and the other French generals—from the Tagus to the Rio Janeiro. Again, in 1814, he was with Packenham at New Orleans, trying to get at Jackson behind the immortal mud parapets and sand-bags, (no cotton packs among them—we have Andrew's word for it,) and was wounded in the boat service while behaving spiritedly and well. In 1818, he commanded the Trent, and accompanied Buchan to the north. Next year he made that terrible overland journey to which we have briefly alluded. In 1825, he made another overland expedition towards the Polar sea, leaving England in great depression of mind in consequence of his first wife's illness. This lady, daughter of Mr. Porden, architect, of London, died in less than a week after he had left England, carrying with him the flag she had given him to hoist on reaching the Polar sea. He was obliged, by the imperfect success of the expedition, to hoist it on Garry's Island, at the mouth of the Mackenzie river. He has left narratives of these two overland expeditions. In 1827, he was presented by the Geographical Society of Paris with a gold medal worth \$250. In 1828, he married Jane, daughter of John Griffin, Esq., of London, and in 1829, Captain Franklin was knighted by George IV. He was actively employed in the Mediterranean in the war of Greek independence, and received for his services the order of the Redeemer of Greece. Sir John, if now alive, is in his 67th year.

Franklin left England on the 26th May, 1845, with the Erebus and Terror—two ominously-named ships, which had been originally built for purposes of bombardment, and had only just returned from the Antarctic exploration under Sir James C. Ross. Sir John was accompanied by Captain Fitzjames and Captain Crozier, and the squadron had a complement of 138 men. He was spoken by the whaler *Enterprise*, Captain Martin, in Baffin's Bay, on the 20th of July, and his ships were last seen on the 26th, (fastened to an iceberg in Melville Bay,) by Captain Dannett, of the whaler *Prince of Wales*. Franklin had—he himself stated—five years' provisions on board, and told Martin he could make them last seven years, if necessary, with the help of the game which he was sure of procuring.

When 1847 had passed away, without tidings from the absent voyagers, some anxiety began to be felt. After a time Sir John Ross expressed his belief that the expedition was frozen up to the southwest of Melville's Island. Sir Francis Beaufort, Sir W. E. Parry, Captain Beechy, Captain Sir John Richardson, and Captain Sir James C. Ross, were nearly of the same opinion, and thought that Franklin, if obliged to quit his ship, would try to make his way, by an unknown interval, to the Mackenzie or Coppermine, on the continent. Dr. McCormack and Captain Penny spoke of Wellington Channel and Jones' Sound; but the former authorities greatly relied, in forming their conclusions, on the orders of the Admiralty, which a British officer is strictly bound to respect. These orders were, that Sir John should endeavor, in the first instance, to proceed towards Behring's Straits, and in a southwesterly direction from Cape Walker, and the alternative, in case the way should be closed, was an attempt through the opening of Wellington Channel. In the spring of 1848, Sir James C. Ross was sent with the *Enterprise* and *Investigator* to Lancaster Sound. He found a barrier across Wellington Channel, and a vast quantity of ice in



Barrow's Straits. He wintered in the harbor of Port Leopold, where the straits, Regent's Inlet, Wellington Channel, and the western opening, made a cross, or sort of northern *Quatre Bras*. The winter was passed in southerly explorings. With Lieutenant McClintock, Sir James explored the west coast of North Somerset, and Lieutenant Robinson examined the western shore of Regent's Inlet beyond Fury Beach. Before quitting his quarters, Sir James built a house at Port Leopold, leaving there fuel and provisions for twelve months. He then made his way into Lancaster Sound, and, on the 5th of November, 1849, reported himself at the Admiralty, having missed the *North Star*, which had been sent out to him with instructions to attempt the passage through Wellington Channel.

In 1848, Sir John Richardson again proceeded from the Hudson Bay stations to the Arctic sea, and explored the coast between the mouth of the Mackenzie and the Coppermine, and also part of Wollaston's Land, in the hope of finding some trace of the missing expedition; but in vain. In the same year the *Plover*, Captain Moore, and the *Herald*, Captain Kellett, went up through Behring's Straits, with the purpose of intercepting Franklin's party, should it have passed through the archipelago southwest of Cape Walker. On this station the *Plover* has remained, coöperating with other ships, and sending out exploring parties occasionally. In 1850, Lieutenant Pullen, of the *Plover*, journeyed to the mouth of the Mackenzie, and so eastward to Point Bathurst, whence he attempted to go to Bank's Land—that unvisited land seen from the coasts of Parry's Islands. But he failed; and in 1851 he returned to the Mackenzie river.

The *North Star*, sent out in 1849 with instructions for Sir James C. Ross, wintered in Wolstenholme Sound, in Baffin's Bay, and returned to Spithead in September, 1850, after having seen in Lancaster Sound the large squadron sent in that year to look for the lost expedition. The movements of this squadron must be fresh in the minds of most of our readers. Captain Austin's ships, the *Resolute* and *Assistance*, with their tenders, went from England in May, 1850. In the same month, Mr. Grinnell's ships, the *Advance* and *Rescue*, under De Haven and Griffin, proceeded to the north. Captain Penny carried up his two ships, the *Lady Franklin* and the *Sophia*; the veteran, Sir John Ross, went in the *Felix*, and Captain Forsyth in the *Prince Albert*. In August all these ships were in Lancaster Sound and Barrow's Straits, or the adjoining waters. On the 13th of that month, Captain Ommaney—Austin's second in command—and Sir John Ross heard from Eskimos, in Barrow's Straits, that two ships were crushed off Cape Dudley Diggs, and the crews afterwards killed—in the winter of 1846—by the natives. But this report was owing to a misconception of the Eskimo language. On the 23d of August, Captain Ommaney, and, a few days later, Captain Penny, found traces of the missing squadron on Point Riley and Beechy Island, at the opening of Wellington Channel. These were a small guide-board attached to a boarding pike eight feet long, and bearing an index pointing the way to the ships, a wooden anvil block, some remnants of rope and clothes, several hundred empty meat canisters, and above all, the graves of three men of the squadron: John Hartnell and William Baine, of the *Erebus*, and John Torrington, of the *Terror*. Three headstones, with inscriptions, marked these graves, and the dates were from January to April, 1846. Captain Austin's ships wintered southwest of Cornwallis Island. Several

officers on foot rounded the west end of Melville Island, in longitude  $114^{\circ}$  west, and saw land beyond the  $116^{\text{th}}$  meridian. The intermediate bays and passages were also explored. On the south of Barrow's Straits, Captain Ommaney, Lieutenant Osborne, Meecham and Browne—at a season when the cold was  $70^{\circ}$  below zero, and spirits froze in bottles—traced Cape Walker and the adjoining straits to within 180 miles of Victoria Land.

Captain Penny's ships explored part of Wellington Channel. He saw three blue openings to the west from that Channel—the north and east being closed with ice. He perceived a strong current running from the westward, and it was his opinion, and that of all who accompanied him, that the prevailing winds were from the northwest. He attempted to send a party in that direction, under Mr. Stuart, but it was stopped by the water, which could be seen stretching on to the horizon. Penny asserts there is a great amount of animal life in this region—four footed, feathery, and finny—walruses, seals, whales, bears, hares, foxes, wolves, reindeer herds, flocks of king and eider ducks, brent, geese, gulls, and other water-fowl. It should be observed that the walrus can exist but where there is open water, in which it may rise for air.

Captain Forsyth, in the Prince Albert, made a rapid run to the Arctic circle, and back to England, in the space of four months. He went through Lancaster Sound, and on to the Fury Beach, in Regent's Inlet. Finding great obstructions to any further progress westwardly, he went up Wellington Channel, and, returning quickly, brought home the news of the relics on Beechy Island. By this time the chief points in Lancaster Sound and Barrow's Straits had been examined, and also the farther end of Melville Island beyond Cape Walker, without revealing any traces of Sir John Franklin and his crews.

The American ships, so generously missioned by Mr. Grinnell on this fraternal errand, were caught in the ice in Lancaster Sound, borne up Wellington Channel, then back again, and out through Lancaster Sound into Baffin's Bay—a drift of 1060 miles during 267 days! Having at last extricated his ships, De Haven again proceeded to confront the deadly difficulties of the search, but was checked by the ice, and obliged reluctantly to return to New York in October, 1851.

While all these ships were exploring the Arctic labyrinth on the coast, the *Enterprise* and *Investigator*, commanded by Captains Collinson and McClure, were endeavoring to make their way from the west. They reached Behring's Straits in 1850, with the purpose of trying to approach Melville Island. They have not yet been able to carry out that object. Along with the *Plover*, they were still, when last heard from, laboring and lingering amidst those Arctic wildernesses they have already spent so much time in exploring, in the still deferred hope of meeting with the missing mariners.

After the return of the eastern squadron of 1850, public opinion underwent a change in respect of the unknown movements of Sir John Franklin; and it was believed, as it still is, that he must have gone up to the northwest, through Wellington Channel. He spent the winter of 1845-6—as we now know—on Beechy Island, and also the succeeding summer, as has been concluded from the deep ruts left in the ground by sledges, and from small patches of garden ground, bordered with purple saxifrages and planted with native plants. Much astonishment has been expressed



that Franklin did not bury some record of his movements and intentions, and indicate where they may be looked for. Sir John Richardson, to account for this, says that, instead of burying one of those copper cylinders with which he was provided, Franklin, knowing there was no resort of natives to that place, would hang it conspicuously on a tree or a post, the sooner to meet the eyes of explorers. But Richardson says this would not preserve it, for bears and wolverines climb trees and posts, and tear down any packages that may be attached to them. A *dépôt*, carefully formed by Lieutenant Griffith, on Griffith Island, was entirely eaten by the bears, the tin cases proving a poor defence against their tusks. They also overthrew a sign-post, and bit off the end of the metal cylinder containing the record. Richardson, therefore, thinks that Sir John Franklin might have left a cylinder containing notices, attached to the sign-post which Penny found flat on the ground, or to some other object, and that the bears and wolverines might have pulled down and destroyed it.

Be this as it may, the search for Sir John Franklin has not ceased. In 1851, Dr. Rae was again sent from the Great Bear Lake, towards the sea, for the exploration of the coast and the shore of Wollaston Land. In the same year, Lady Franklin—more steadily hopeful than the Ithacan wife of old—sent the Prince Albert, Captain Kennedy, again into the Arctic circle. Meeting the returning American ships, Kennedy pushed on through Barrow's Straits, desiring, like Forsyth in the preceding year, to examine Regent's Inlet. But the ice was so thick he could not enter it. At Port Leopold he was separated, along with a small party, from his ship, and, drifting away on the ice, was recovered with difficulty. A floe of ice then bore the Prince Albert down the inlet, where, on the western shore, the voyagers wintered at Batty Bay. From this place Captain Kennedy and Mr. Ballot proceeded, on the 1st of April, with sledges, round Melville Bay, and following Brentford Bay to the west, discovered that it was a new channel, which they believed to be the looked-for passage. Passing round, they proceeded to Cape Walker, in North Somerset, and so eastward to Port Leopold, whence, after a journey of 1200 miles in two months, they reached the ship in Batty Bay. No trace of Franklin was found; but the Prince Albert brought home last October some interesting news, nevertheless. Passing up into Barrow's Straits, in August, 1852, Captain Kennedy reached Beechy Island on the 19th of that month, and there found Captain Pullen in the North Star, at Erebus Bay, who told him Sir Edward Belcher, in the Assistance, had started up Wellington Channel on the 14th, and Captain Kellett, of the Resolute, had gone westwardly to Melville Island, and the south of Perry's Islands, to deposit there provisions and other necessaries for Collinson and McClure's expedition, should it reach so far from Behring's Straits. Belcher's squadron had been sent from England in the spring of last year, Sir Edward's chief instructions being, to attempt the passage by Wellington Channel. In his absence, the North Star remained at Beechy Island as a *dépôt*.


Research seems to have taken the right track after all; and the failures of the last three years were necessary to indicate it. The world is anxiously waiting to hear the result of Sir Edward's bold voyage, favored as it has been by a season of great openness.

America, also, sends out one more expedition in search of the missing ships. Dr. E. R. Kane, in the Advance, goes up the Arctic circle. He

proposes to make the starting-point of his search Smith Sound, or some convenient station in the head waters of Baffin's Bay—over two hundred miles further to the north than Beechy Island. Thence, accompanied by a small party with a couple of sledges drawn by dogs, he will undertake an overland pilgrimage westward, in the direction of the Polar Basin. He expects the coöperation of the Danish authorities in removing any difficulties of the preparatory arrangements, and procuring the assistance of such Eskimos as he may need. Each sledge will carry an India-rubber boat on a basket of wicker-work. The doctor has carefully superintended the pemmican, the biscuit, the condensed milk, and dessicated vegetables, and all those gastronomic resources on which the intrepid little party must mainly rely. Hoping to reach the starting-place in the early season of navigation, he intends to follow his course of travel nearly upon a meridional line, which would, it is believed, lead him to the Polynya—a *mare liberum*, or such, comparatively speaking—within its formidable borderings of the thick-ribbed ice. Mr. Grinnell has again generously given his good ship, the *Advance*, fully equipped, for this chivalrous charity; and the doctor has had his enterprise encouraged by autograph letters from the venerable Baron Humboldt, the Nestor of science and philosophy, Sir Francis Beaufort, Colonel Sabine, Captains Parry, Ross, and other distinguished men.

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## OLD IRONSIDES.

N the 19th August, 1812, the *Constitution* made a suspicious sail from the mast-head, a long way to leeward. This was in N. Lat. 41°, 41', and W. Long. 55°, 48', or less than 700 miles nearly east of Cape Cod. Having looked for his enemy in the vicinity of Halifax, without success, Hull was now on his way to go off Bermuda, with a similar purpose, when he fell in with this vessel. The strange sail was first seen at two P. M., and at three she was made out to be a ship, under short canvas, and close hauled, apparently waiting for the *Constitution* to come down to her. At half past three, the stranger was distinctly made out to be a frigate, and little doubt was entertained of his being an enemy.

The *Constitution* continued to run down, until near enough to take a good look at the strange sail, when she came by the wind, and began to clear for action. While lying in this situation, the enemy having his maintopsail aback, gallantly waiting for his adversary, Hull reconnoitered, and made up his mind that he had a first-class English frigate to deal with. The top-gallant sails were furled, and her flying jib and all of her light staysails stowed. A second reef was taken in all the topsails, the courses were hauled up, and the royal yards sent down. By this time the ship was clear and the drum beat to quarters, when the crew responded with three hearty cheers. After this the helm was put up, and the ship bore directly down upon the enemy. The *Constitution* had about a league to



run, before she could get alongside of the stranger. At five p. m., being then at long gun-shot, the Englishman showed three ensigns, in different parts of his vessel, and commenced firing at very long shot. After discharging the guns of one side, he would wear and fire those of the other. These manœuvres induced the Americans to yaw, to prevent being raked, though they fired but three or four guns in approaching. These evolutions, and the short sail carried, retarded the approach of the Constitution essentially, and she was near an hour in getting within a short range of her enemy. At six p. m., however, the Englishman bore up, and ran off with the wind on his larboard quarter, under his topsails and jib. The Constitution then set her main-topgallant-sail, to close. A few minutes later, the forward guns of the American ship, and the after guns of the English, bore, when each party commenced his fire, the two frigates being within a hundred yards of each other. As the Constitution had the most way on her, she drew gradually ahead, until she came fairly abeam. Just as the two ships were square with each other, the mizzen-mast of the stranger came down, over the starboard quarter. This, of course, caused the American frigate to draw ahead still faster, and in about fifteen minutes after she had begun to fire, she was so far forward, as to induce Hull to luff short round his enemy's bows, to rake him. After having fired three raking broadsides, the Constitution attempted to wear and resume her former course, parallel to that of the *Guerrière*, but owing to the loss of braces and other running-rigging, the Constitution wore so slowly that the bowsprit of the *Guerrière* passed diagonally over the quarter-deck of the Constitution, and finally dropped astern with her starboard bow against the Constitution's larboard or lee quarter gallery. This was an awkward position, and might have led to serious consequences, had not the enemy been pretty effectually threshed before it occurred. As it was, two or three of the Englishman's forward guns were discharged with effect into the stern and quarter of old Ironsides, so close as to set fire to the cabin. Hoffman, who was in command there, behaved admirably, extinguishing the fire and protecting his men with great spirit and coolness.

While this scene was in the course of being acted below, one still more serious occurred on the quarter-deck. Both parties called away boarders, as the ships came foul. All the English boarders and marines collected forward, while the Americans rushed aft. Morris, Aylwin, and Bush, (lieutenant of marines) were foremost among the Constitution's people. On the other hand, many of the English exhibited equal gallantry, and for a few moments the musketry did great execution. Lieutenant Morris was in the act of lashing some of the head-gear of the English frigate to the Constitution, when he was hit by a bullet in the body. Mr. Bush fell dead by a ball received in the forehead, and Mr. Aylwin was shot through the shoulder. Missiles were thrown by hand from ship to ship, but boarding was out of the question, on account of the sea, the distance between the bulwarks of the two frigates, and the force collected on the deck of each to repel such an attempt. However, several lives were lost and many brave men wounded, by the close and murderous fire of the musketry. The Constitution drew ahead and parted from her adversary, moving off on the same tack. As the two ships separated, the Englishman's fore and main mast both came by the board, leaving him wallowing in the sea and encumbered with wreck. Of course, this decided the affair, leaving Old

Ironsides effectually the victor, and affording her time to look to the security of her own spars, which were of the last moment to her, in a sea that would certainly be soon swarming with enemies.

Having hauled off a short distance, and rove new rigging, besides looking to the stoppers and other securities for the masts, Hull was ready to run down on his enemy, who still kept a jack flying on the stump of his mizzen mast. The Constitution accordingly wore ship, and coming close in on the enemy's weather bow, in a position to rake him, the jack came down, and the first English frigate that had done such a thing since the war of the Revolution, struck to an American. The prize proved to be the *Guerriere*, 38, a French-built ship, that had been taken by the English in the year —, by the —, Captain —, and now commanded by Captain Dacres. The *Guerriere* was a fine vessel of her class, mounting on her gun-deck thirty eighteens, and nineteen carronades and chase guns on her quarter-deck and forecastle; or twenty-five guns in broadside. She is said, however, to have been pierced for twenty-seven guns in broadside, which was just the number now carried by the Constitution. Some explanation, nevertheless, becomes necessary, in order not to convey to the reader a false idea of the respective forces of these two ships. The gun-deck battery of the Constitution consisted then, as now, of thirty guns of the *bore* of twenty-four pounders. The shot, notwithstanding, owing to defective casting, often weighed less than twenty-two pounds. Now, a shot of the *size* of a twenty-four pound shot, that weighs less than ought to have been its weight in solid metal, is less efficient than one, even, that has the accurate proportions between its weight and its diameter. The elements of the momentum, the principle that controls the efficiency of a shot, are the same in both cases, though the momentum itself differs, on account of the greater resistance of the atmosphere to a large, than to a small shot. In the case of the guns of the Constitution, the influence of the diameter may not have amounted to much, especially in an action fought at such close quarters; though two pounds in the weight of a shot is a matter of some moment in naval warfare. The carronades of both ships were thirty-twos, alike. As the defective castings pertained to nearly, if not to quite all the American shot used at that time, the difference applied to carronade shot, as well as to those of the long guns, making the quarter-deck and forecastle batteries of the *Guerriere*, gun for gun, actually heavier than those of the Constitution.

Nevertheless, the Constitution was a vessel decidedly superior to her prize, in all and each of the elements of force. She was of more tonnage, had heavier spars, carried heavier metal, and had a larger crew. The inferiority of the *Guerriere* was most apparent, indeed, in the number of her crew, she having less than three hundred men at quarters, while our own ship had considerably more than four hundred. There is not much doubt, however, that three hundred men in the Constitution ought to have been able to contend with four hundred in the *Guerriere*, though, in that case, the conflict would have been nearer on an equality. It is no more than fair to mention, also, that while it would seem to be certain, that the *Guerriere* actually carried thirty guns on her gun-deck, her regular armament would have been only twenty-eight. She was somewhat longer than was usual for vessels of her class, and it has been asserted that two guns were mounted in her bridle-ports, to bring her by the head. These two



guns, it will be remembered, on the other hand, were of particular service to her, on account of the peculiar manner in which the battle was fought, the Constitution being so much on the bows of her adversary. Here, then, had Old Ironsides fairly beaten an English frigate in a yard-arm fight, leaving her opponent without an upright stick in her, except the stumps of masts, while she still carried every essential spar of her own in its place!

As Morris was wounded, Wadsworth had to attend to the duty of the ship, and George Campbell Read was sent to take possession of the prize. Dacres was wounded, but not so seriously that he could not walk, and he was transferred to the vessel of his captor, a boat having been sent to apprise Hull of the name of his prize, and the state of his prisoner. Hull was a man of few words, and totally without flourish, but kind-hearted and direct. As Dacres went up the side of the Constitution, Hull appeared in the gangway, extended an arm, and said, as if addressing an old friend—"Dacres, give me your hand—I know you are hurt." This was not Decatur's or Truxtun's mode of receiving a captive.

Not long after the Guerriere was taken possession of, a strange sail was seen, and the Constitution cleared for another action, precisely as she had begun to chase on a former occasion, as soon as her enemies ceased chasing her. On this occasion, the stranger hauled off on perceiving the Constitution, he being most probably a merchantman. That night and next day, the prisoners were removed from the prize, and orders were given to set her on fire. Hoffman was the officer employed on this duty, and he left the Guerriere in the last boat, about 3 o'clock in the succeeding afternoon. Shortly after, the ship blew up. Captain Dacres reported his loss in the action, at fifteen killed and sixty-three wounded; or a total of seventy-eight casualties. The Americans added one to this account. Captain Hull reported his loss at seven killed and seven wounded; or a total of fourteen casualties. Among the slain of the Guerriere, was her second lieutenant, and among her wounded, her captain, first lieutenant, master, etc. The Constitution lost her lieutenant of marines, the gallant Bush, and Morris was wounded, together with one other officer. Encumbered with so many prisoners, Hull now deemed it necessary to go into port. The ship had not received any material damage, but it was every way desirable to return home, for a short time at least. On reaching Boston, Hull gave up the ship, Bainbridge having had some time in his possession orders to join her. It was September 15th, however, before the latter officer hoisted his broad pennant on board Old Ironsides.

The Constitution had been made a favorite ship under Preble, but this brilliant success added immensely to her favor with the nation. From this moment she became dear to every American, and it would have caused great pain to the entire Republic, had she fallen into the hands of the enemy. Still, there was no intention to keep her out of harm's way, in order to nurse her up as a thing to boast of. On the contrary, to sea she was immediately ordered again, and to sea she went, as soon as she could be got ready.

Bainbridge was to have a squadron, consisting of his own ship, the Constitution 44, the Essex 32, Captain Porter, and the Hornet 18, Captain Lawrence. The first and last of these vessels were at Boston, while the Essex was in the Delaware. Giving the last two places of rendezvous at different ports, the Commodore sailed, with the Hornet in company, Octo-

ber 26th, 1812. On this cruise there was necessarily some change of officers, in addition to that of commanders. Morris having been promoted, George Parker, of Virginia, was ordered to the ship as her first lieutenant. Aylwin had been promoted to a lieutenant, and was junior of the ship. G. Campbell Read was transferred to the United States, and Wadsworth to the Adams, as her first lieutenant. This made the list of lieutenants read as follows, viz.: Parker, Hoffman, Shubrick, Morgan, and Aylwin. Of these, all but the senior-lieutenant, had been in the ship since the commencement of the war.

The two ships were off St. Salvador, December 13th, having looked in vain for the Essex, at the appointed place of rendezvous. An English ship of war was lying in St. Salvador, and, in the expectation that she might be induced to come out and engage the Hornet, Bainbridge left the latter ship alone, off the harbor, and stood along the coast to the southward, on the 26th of the month. Three days later, when in lat.  $13^{\circ} 6' S.$ , and long.  $31^{\circ} W.$ , the Constitution saw two strange sail, in shore, and to windward. The smallest of these vessels continued to stand in for the land, which was then distant from the Constitution rather more than thirty miles; while the other, much the larger vessel of the two, edged away to take a nearer look at Old Ironsides. The wind was far from fresh at E. N. E.

By 11 A. M., the Constitution's officers were satisfied that the ship to windward was an enemy's frigate, and being now nearer to the land than was desirable, in the event of a chase, the ship was taken to the southward and eastward, to draw the stranger off shore. At the same time, the royals were set, and the main-tack boarded, the stranger sailing the best, in the light wind that prevailed. At meridian each vessel showed her ensign; signals were also made on board each ship, but they proved to be mutually unintelligible. Some time after 1 P. M., the Constitution hauled up her mainsail, and furled her royals.

The action commenced about two. The English ship, which was afterwards ascertained to be the Java, was about a mile to windward of the Constitution, both vessels now heading to the southward and eastward, the Java being well on her antagonist's quarter. In this state of things, the Englishman had hauled down his ensign, though he kept a jack flying, and Old Ironsides threw a shot ahead of him, to induce him to show his colors. By some mistake, the order to fire this gun brought on a discharge of the Constitution's broadside, which was immediately returned. The Java going much the faster in the light wind which prevailed, she was soon so far ahead as to be able to attempt crossing the Constitution's bow. This induced Bainbridge to keep off and to wear, the Java coming round at the same time. Both vessels now headed to the westward. These changes brought the two ships much closer together, and within pistol-shot. The Java repeated the attempt to cross the Constitution's bow, but was again foiled by the latter ship wearing. Both vessels came round at the same time, with their heads again to the eastward. The Java forereached as usual, and with a view to keep her weatherly position, she attempted to tack, but missed stays. At the same time, the Constitution wore, having lost her wheel early in the action. Old Ironsides coming round the soonest, got an effective raking fire into her enemy.

Both ships now ran off free, wearing again, the English still to wind-



ward, though greatly injured. At fifty-five minutes past two, finding his berth too hot, the Englishman attempted to run Old Ironsides aboard, actually getting his jib-boom into her mizzen-rigging. In this situation the good old craft punished her bold assailant very severely, nor did she let him get clear until the head of his bowsprit was shot away. Soon after, his foremast came down, and, in passing ahead, the two vessels ran so close together that the stump of the Englishman's bowsprit actually scraped over the Constitution's taffrail. In a moment the Constitution wore, and passing her enemy to leeward wore again. The Java keeping off, the two ships once more ranged fairly alongside of each other, during which time the Englishman's mizzen-mast came down, leaving nothing standing on board him but his main-mast, and of that, the yard was shot away in the slings.

By this time the Java's fire had ceased, and Bainbridge, supposing her to have submitted, boarded his main-tack, and passed out of the combat, luffing directly athwart his adversary's bows. Standing on, a short distance to windward, the Constitution came to the wind, and passed an hour in securing her masts, and reeving new running-rigging. At the end of that time, an ensign was seen flying on board the Java, when Bainbridge wore short round, and ran down directly across his enemy's forefoot. This evolution was sufficient, and before a gun was fired the English flag was lowered, for the second time, to Old Ironsides!

The prize was the Java, 38, Capt. Lambert, with a large number of supernumeraries in her, bound to the East Indies. Her commander was mortally wounded, but her lieutenant reported her loss twenty-two killed, and one hundred and two wounded. This was a very severe loss, though Bainbridge thinks it was considerably greater. He says her loss was certainly sixty killed, and one hundred and one wounded. It is probable that more were killed, or died early of their wounds, than were reported by the English, and that fewer were killed than Bainbridge supposed. The English say that the ship's company and supernumeraries amounted to three hundred and seventy-seven souls, while the Americans affirm that they found a muster-roll in the ship, that was made out several days after she had sailed, and which had on it considerably more than four hundred names. All this is of little moment, as three hundred and seventy-seven men were quite enough for such a ship, no one who understands vessels ever supposing that the Java was equal in force to the Constitution.

It was the manner in which Old Ironsides invariably did her work, that excited the admiration of the knowing. On this occasion she had shot out of her adversary every spar she had, (the mainmast coming down before she struck) while she herself could carry royals!

In her action with the Java, the good ship suffered more than she did in her previous engagements. She had nine killed and twenty-five wounded. Among the latter was Bainbridge himself, and Aylwin, the junior lieutenant, the same officer who was wounded in the combat with the *Guerriere*, died of hurts received in this battle. The ship herself was not much injured. Some of her spars were wounded, and a few shots struck her hull; but the great cause of surprise to the Americans was to know where all the enemy's shot had gone.

In consequence of the water being so smooth, the Java was not much injured below the water-line. She might very well have been taken into

port, but the experiment would have been hazardous on many accounts. She was without spars, far from America, the sea was covered with English cruisers, and the nearest countries were much under the control of English influence. Keeping all the circumstances in view, Bainbridge removed all his prisoners, and two or three days after the action, he ordered Hoffman to blow up this prize, too, and return to St. Salvador. Here he landed his prisoners, among whom were Lt. Gen. Hyslop, with his staff, and several supernumerary sea officers.

As Old Ironsides rejoined her consort, the Hornet, the utmost anxiety prevailed on board the latter vessel, on the subject of the result of the action. The vessel in company with the Java previously to the battle, was an American prize, which had stood on toward St. Salvador, and fallen into the hands of the Hornet, off the port. Her prize-crew, of course, related the fact, that the Java had left her to engage an American frigate, but could say nothing of the result. Lawrence had great confidence in Old Ironsides, but as he approached her, he kept everything ready for flight, should it be necessary. It could be seen that stoppers were on the standing rigging, and that the ship had been in a warm combat; but where was the prize? It was possible that the English had got hold of the good old craft, and had sent her in to decoy the Hornet under her guns. The signals read well, but the prize-crew of the ship retaken, gave marvellous accounts of the Java, and of her all-powerful, double-jointed crew, and so many men might have been thrown on board our ship, as to have swept her out of our grasp! This feeling prevailed on board the Hornet, until the vessels were near enough to distinguish countenances, when the number of well-known faces that appeared above the Constitution's hammock-cloths settled the matter. Hearty cheers soon proclaimed that it was a meeting between friends. As soon as Lawrence got on board the Constitution, he told Bainbridge that the English sloop-of-war, in the port, had hove short, and it was thought intended to come out that night. If such had been the plan, the arrival of Old Ironsides, with the crew of the Java as prisoners, was argument enough to cause it to be abandoned. Willing, however, to give Lawrence a chance, Bainbridge remained as short a time at St. Salvador as possible, sailing for home Jan. 6th, 1813, and reaching Boston Feb. 27th.

Old Ironsides carried the news of her own success. No one believed that the capture of an isolated ship, here and there, could have any great influence on the result of the war, in a mere material sense; England had too many frigates, and America too few, for such occurrences to conduce essentially to direct conquests, but indirectly they were of vast weight. The moral effect of Hull's victory cannot readily be estimated. Great it was, beyond all doubt, and here was a second success by the same ship, bringing the vessel itself into the account as *particeps gloriæ*. Until the return of the Constitution from this cruise, the Constellation had been the champion of the navy. Her two battles in the French war eclipsed anything else that had been done by any other vessel of her size then in existence, but the Constellation's exploits would not compare with those of Old Ironsides. The former ship had captured one *French* frigate, and beaten off another; but the Constitution had taken two *Englishmen*! The difference was essential, and considering all things, even the glorious little Enterprise, one of the most successful cruisers to the very last, that ever



floated, could scarce be thought to compete with Old Ironsides. Here was the war only seven months old, and in that brief space the eyes of the country were drawn on that ship, by the chase, worth a victory any day, and the combats with the *Guerriere* and the *Java*! Three such exploits in so short a time, were sufficient to give any ship a name, and the nation had not forgotten the achievements of Preble before Tripoli. It seemed to make no difference who commanded, the old barky was always successful; always in harm's way, and always getting out of the scrape with credit. Preble, Hull, or Bainbridge; each and all had been victorious on the decks of this staunch old ship. Jack began to think that if he wanted a victory and prize-money, he had only to ship on board Old Ironsides.

There was one singular exception to the rule, however, which it may be well to mention. One of the *Hornet's* lieutenants, Mr. Ballard, was anxious to share in the luck of Old Ironsides, after the capture of the *Java*, while Lawrence was willing to try the luck of John Shubrick, who had now been in the chase and the two battles, and an exchange was made off the port of St. Salvador. Both parties may be said to have succeeded, in a certain sense; for John Shubrick was in the *Hornet*, when she took the *Peacock*, and Ballard, by sticking to his new ship, subsequently shared in her honors.

A new commander was now given to the *Constitution*, in the person of Charles Stewart, Bainbridge being transferred to a ship of the line then building. Some other changes also took place among her superior officers.

When Stewart had got a new crew, and was ready to go out, it was already winter. The ship shaped her course for the West Indies, old cruising ground for both vessel and commander, passing along our own coast. In this cruise Old Ironsides had no action, though she came near engaging a frigate off the Mona Passage, which was afterwards ascertained to be *La Pique*, 36. The English vessel got off in the night, by running through the Mona passage. She captured a vessel of war, however, in the Pictou, a schooner of 14 guns. Following the coast, Capt. Stewart returned to Boston. As he reached the capes, he fell in with the *Juno*, 38, and *Tenedos*, 35, both under the orders of Capt. Upton, which vessels pushed him hard, chasing him into Marblehead. After remaining a short time in this port, the frigate went out and proceeded to Boston, giving the blockading force the slip.

December 17th, 1814, Ironsides went out again with Stewart, and substantially the same set of officers and men. She now went off Bermuda, thence viâ Madeira into the Bay of Biscay. England was now at peace with all the world but America. From the Bay of Biscay the old barky went off Lisbon to look for Englishmen, and came near chasing an English 74 up to the rock. This ship, the *Elizabeth*, hearing in Lisbon that the good craft was off the coast, came out immediately in quest of her, but the bird had flown. While off Lisbon, a large ship was run alongside of, in the night, and after some hailing, two or three shot were fired into her, to compel answers, when it was ascertained she was a Portuguese.

Defeated in his hopes of finding anything where he was, and quite aware of the imprudence of staying long in any one place, Feb. 20th, Stewart up helm and stood off southward and westward, for twenty or thirty leagues. At 1 P. M., of that very day, a stranger was made on

the larboard bow, and to leeward. The Constitution hauled up a little and made sail in chase. It was not long before another vessel was seen to leeward of the first, which, at 2 P. M., was made out to be a ship. All three vessels were now standing on the same tack, on bowlines, gradually nearing each other. At 4 P. M., the nearest of the strangers up helm and ran down to speak to his consort, which was the commanding vessel, as it appeared in the end. Seeing this, Old Ironsides squared away in chase, setting everything that would draw, alow and aloft. For an hour or more the two weathermost ships were thus running off, nearly dead before the wind, while the most leewardly vessel was luffing to close.

It may render the relation more clear if we at once say, that the two strangers proved to be the Cyane, 20, and Levant, 18, British vessels of war; the former mounting 34, and the latter 22 guns. The Cyane was commanded by Captain Falcon, and the Levant by the Hon. Captain Douglas, a son of Lord Douglas, who was the child that gave rise to the celebrated "Douglas cause," at the close of the last century.

At half-past five the two English ships were so near together that it was impossible to prevent a junction, and Old Ironsides, then rather more than a league distant from them, began to strip and clear for battle. A few minutes later, the Englishmen passed within hail of each other; soon after which they both hauled by the wind, with their heads to the northward, and shortened sail. It was evident they were clearing ship, and intended to fight. As Old Ironsides was traveling towards them all this time, they soon fancied themselves in a state to weather on her, and both, at the same instant, set their main courses, and made all other sail in a taut-bowline. But it would not do; the good old craft was too much in earnest to be outmanœvered in this wise, but came down so fast that in a few minutes they hauled up their courses again, and formed in line, the commanding ship, or the Levant, leading. At 6 P. M., Stewart let the enemy see the stars and stripes for the first time. On this hint the English set their own ensigns, and, five minutes later, Ironsides ranged up abeam of the Cyane, distant about a cable's length, passing ahead with her sails lifting, until the three vessels lay about equi-distant from each other. In this masterly position the Constitution let fly her first broadside, receiving those of her enemies.

For about a quarter of an hour the firing was very warm and unremitted, but at the end of that time the enemy grew less active in his cannonading. Stewart now ordered his people to stand fast, and let the smoke rise from the surface of the water, in order to get a better view of the state of things to the leeward. In a very few minutes this was obtained, and it was found that the Levant lay directly under the frigate's lee, while the Cyane was luffing to cross her wake, if possible. Old Ironsides now let the ship abeam have all her guns, and then backed astern, as if plying in a tides-way, and compelled the Cyane to keep off to avoid being raked. As it was, she got it abeam. The Levant was not idle, but, in her turn, she now luffed and tried to tack, in order to cross the frigate's forefoot, but the busy old craft was too nimble for her. Filling everything, Stewart shot ahead, forced the sloop of war to wear, under a raking broadside, in order to keep clear of him, and to run off to leeward to get out of the range of his shot. The Cyane, perceiving the state of things, wore ship, when the Constitution came round too, and so quick as to rake this adversary, as she



came by the wind. The Englishman came up as high as he could, and fired his broadside, but, finding Old Ironsides closing on his weather quarter, he hauled down his ensign. Hoffman immediately took possession of him. As soon as this was done, Stewart went to look for the *Levant*.

In running to leeward, Captain Douglas had no intention of abandoning his consort. He had found his berth too warm, and very wisely got out of it as fast as he could; but having repaired his most material damages, as well as he was able, he had hauled up to look for her.

He met the *Constitution* about nine, there having been an intermission in the combat, of some duration, in consequence of this separation. The *Levant* knew nothing of the fate of the *Cyane*, and her commander probably thought the Yankee was running away from her, when he thus met him. Each vessel brought the wind abeam, and they crossed each other, on opposite tracks, firing in passing. The *Levant* was satisfied this would never do, but up helm and tried to escape. Old Ironsides followed, firing her chase guns with great deliberation and effect. Captain Douglas soon saw that every shot struck him and raked him, and he came by the wind, and fired a gun to leeward, in token that he gave it up. Shubrick was sent to take possession.

This combat was remarkable for its brilliant manœuvering. It is seldom that one vessel can fight two, at the same time, without being raked. This Stewart did, however, not only escaping from all the attempts of the enemy to get this advantage over him, but actually raking both of his adversaries, each in his turn. Taking the evolutions all together, it would not be easy to find an action in which a ship was better handled. Nor did the enemy neglect his duty. Old Ironsides was several times hulled, and her loss was three killed and twelve wounded. The English loss is uncertain, no English report of the action having been made, and there being supernumeraries in each ship. Forty-two wounded were found in the two ships, and the slain have been variously computed at from thirty-five down to ten or twelve. No officer was hurt on board the *Constitution*. This action, it will be remembered, was fought in the night, though there was a moon for a part of the time.

Stewart went to Port Praya, with his prizes, arriving there on the 10th of March. In the mean time Ballard had been put in the *Levant* as prize-master, as due to his rank, and Shubrick went back to the frigate, acting as her first lieutenant.

A vessel was chartered at Port Praya, for a cartel, and about a hundred of the English prisoners were sent to fit her for sea. In this state of things, and the very day after the arrival of Old Ironsides at Port Praya, occurred one of the narrowest escapes from her enemies it was ever the good fortune of this lucky ship to run.

The weather was thick, more particularly near the water, where lay a bank of mist that could not be penetrated by the eye at any distance. A boat had just left the ship, with orders to tow the cartel off, and the duty of the vessel was in some measure at a stand. Shubrick, on whom the discharge of the executive duties of the vessel had fallen, in his new character of first lieutenant, was walking the quarter-deck, deeply ruminating on the business before him, when he heard an exclamation from one of the English midshipmen, who was aft on the taffrail. The lad had spoken to Captain Falcon, late of the *Cyane*, his words being, "Oh, Captain Falcon,

look at the large ship in the offing." So intent was Shubrick on his own ruminations, that these words might have passed unheeded for the moment but for the answer. "Hold your tongue, you little rascal," answered Captain Falcon, in a low voice. This completely aroused the lieutenant, who, walking aft, saw, over the bank of mist, the upper sails of a large ship, that was apparently beating up to gain the harbor. After taking a good look at the stranger, Shubrick went below, and reported the fact to the Captain. Stewart was shaving at the time, and without discontinuing the operation, he answered, coolly, "Very well, sir. It is an Indiaman, or it may be a frigate—call all hands and heave short, and we'll go out and see what she's made of." Shubrick ordered "all hands up anchor," called, and then went on deck to take another look at the stranger, while the men were tumbling up and manning the bars. He now saw the upper sails of two more large ships in the mist, above the bank, all three beating up for the roads. Captain Stewart was immediately informed of this, and without a moment's hesitation, he gave the order to "cut." It is probable that this prompt command saved the ship. A signal was made for the prizes to follow, and the duty went on in the most beautiful and cool manner. In fourteen minutes after the first ship was seen, and in ten after the order to cut was given, Old Ironsides was walking out of the roads under her topsails. Preparations of all sorts were made rapidly, and away all three of the ships went together, just clearing the shore, and passing at gun-shot to windward of the strangers, now known to be heavy vessels-of-war, though no one, as yet, had seen their hulls. They were thought to be two ships-of-the-line and a large frigate. As the Constitution cleared the land, she crossed topgallant yard, boarded her tacks, and set her staysails. No sooner were the Americans abeam of their enemies, than the latter tacked, and all six of the ships stood to the southward and eastward, carrying everything that would draw, with about ten knot-way on them.

As Ironsides drew into the offing, she cut adrift two boats that were towing astern. As yet no one had seen the hulls of the enemy, though there could be no mistake as to their character. The mist seemed to settle, however, in the offing, lying nearer to the water, and the air became a little clearer aloft. The vessel that was taken for a frigate, weathered on everything, her own consorts as well as on the American vessels. The English officers, prisoners in the Constitution, could not conceal their delight, and confidently predicted the capture of Old Ironsides, and the recapture of their own vessels. They announced the chasing ships to be the *Leander* 50, Sir George Collier; *Newcastle* 50, Lord George Stuart; and *Acasta* 40, Captain Kerr. The first two vessels were new ships on one deck, built expressly to overmatch the American 44's. The English prisoners were particularly confident "Kerr, in the *Acasta*," would overtake the Constitution, which vessel they fancied could not sail, from seeing her jog along at an easy rate, in company with her prizes. Stewart kept her traveling on the present occasion, and it was not quite so easy a thing to come up with her, as hope had induced the prisoners to believe. One of the English captains was so sanguine as to get into the quarter-gallery, and make signs to the weatherly frigate, inviting her to come on, and exclaiming, in the presence of American officers, "Captain Kerr, I envy you your glory this day." With Stewart himself, these gentlemen did not maintain much reserve, pretty plainly intimating that Old Ironsides had



not the speed necessary to get clear of the "British Phoenix," as they termed "Kerr, in the Acasta."

Whatever may have been the fact, as regards our own honest old craft, it is certain the prizes were in a bad way. The Cyane was a short ship, mounting twenty-two guns on one deck and twelve above, and of course was not very weatherly. Stewart saw that the frigate, or supposed frigate—for no one had yet seen the hull of an Englishman—was weathering on her fast, and he made a signal for her to tack. Hoffman went round immediately, and passed his most dangerous adversary a short gun-shot to windward, on contrary tacks. Not a ship of the enemy went about. The "British Phoenix" stood gallantly on, endeavoring to get into the wake of the Constitution, and the Cyane was soon lost sight of in the haze. No sooner had the mist shut in the enemy, than Hoffman went about again, and continued making short tacks to windward for twenty-four hours, when, giving the islands a good berth, he squared away for America, bringing his ship successfully into New York.

At half-past two, one of the English vessels was pretty well up, on the lee quarter of Ironsides. By this time the fog had packed on the water so low, that her officers could be seen standing on the hammock-cloths, though her ports were not yet visible. She fired, by division, and conjectures could be made concerning the extent of her batteries, by the flashes of her guns, as seen through the fog. The shot fell within a hundred yards of the Constitution, but did not rise again. After trying this experiment unsuccessfully, the firing ceased.

The Levant all this time was falling in astern, nearer and nearer to the weatherly frigate, or was getting into the very danger from which the Cyane had been relieved an hour or two before. Stewart made her signal to tack. Ballard went round immediately, but could not work off to windward, as Hoffman had just done; for seven minutes after he had got about, all three of the Englishmen tacked, by signal, and were on his heels. This compelled him to run back into the roads and anchor. The enemy stood in after the Levant, and opened a heavy fire on that ship. The prisoners ashore joined them, and added the guns of the battery to the attack. Of course Ballard submitted, but he had some relief for his mortification in losing his ship, in what passed with the boarding officer. "I presume I have the honor to receive the sword of Captain Biddle, of the U. S. ship Hornet," said that gentleman, when Ballard offered his sword. "You receive the sword of Lieutenant Ballard, of the Constitution, prize master of his Brittannic Majesty's late ship Levant," was the caustic reply.

Stewart crossed the ocean to Maranham, where he landed his prisoners, on parole, and shaped his course for home, going into Boston in the month of May. Peace was actually made when he took the Cyane and Levant, though the captures were legal, in the latitude and longitude in which they were made, under the provision of the treaty.

Thus terminated the services of Old Ironsides, in the third of the wars she has seen. In the short period of two years and nine months, she had fought three battles successfully, had captured five vessels-of-war, two of which were frigates, and one frigate-built, and had been three times hard pressed in chases, by squadrons of greatly superior force.

## SUENO'S PILLAR.

**S**UENO'S PILLAR, of which the accompanying engraving gives a correct representation, is situated at a short distance from the town of Forres, in the county of Elgin. It is only a few yards off the road leading from Elgin to Inverness. It is admitted on all hands to be the most singular monument of the kind in Great Britain, perhaps in Europe. Many of the most distinguished antiquarians are indeed of opinion that it has no parallel in any country, Egypt excepted. It is cut out of a large block of granite stone of the hardest kind to be found in Scotland. In height it measures twenty-five feet, and in breadth, near its base, nearly four feet. It is divided into seven departments. It is sculptured on both sides; but that which looks in an eastern direction is by far the most interesting, not only because it is more crowded with figures than the other, but because those figures are executed in such a manner as shows that those by whose instructions it was erected, regarded it as that which would chiefly perpetuate whatever occurrence it was intended to record. The highest department of the obelisk contains representations of nine horses, each having a rider, who is apparently rejoicing at the accomplishment of some important object—most probably of some great victory which has been gained. The figures on this division of the stone are more defaced by time than those on the other divisions, but are still sufficiently distinct to prevent any mistake as to what they are. In the next department appear a number of men, all in a warlike attitude. Some of them are brandishing their weapons, while others, as if exulting at some joyful event, are represented as holding their shields on high. Others, again, are in the act of joining hands, either as if mutually congratulating each other, or as a pledge of reciprocal encouragement and assistance. In the center of the next line of figures appear two warriors, who seemingly are either making preparations for, or are already engaged in, single combat, while their respective friends are witnessing the conflict with the liveliest interest. Next, we have a group of figures, witnessing one of their number beheading, in cold blood, the prisoners who had been taken in war. Close by is a kind of canopy, which covers the heads of those who have been executed. This canopy is guarded by men, each bearing a halberd. A number of dead bodies are lying on one side. Next are trumpeters, blowing their trumpets, in testimony, no doubt, of the triumph which has been obtained by the parties, to commemorate whose deeds the monument was raised. In the next division we have a troop of horses put to flight by a band of infantry, whose first line are armed with bows and arrows, while those which follow are accoutered with swords and targets. In the next and last department of the stone, the horses seem to be seized by the conquering party, the riders are beheaded, and the head of the chief or leader is suspended, which is probably meant to denote the same degradation as if it were hung in chains. The other side of the obelisk is chiefly occupied with a large cross. Beneath it are two persons, evidently of great conse-



quence. They are accompanied by a retinue of attendants, and embrace each other as if in the act of becoming reconciled together.

Such is a description of this very extraordinary monument. As to its origin, or the particular events it was intended to commemorate, we are unfortunately left in uncertainty. Every historian, every traveler, and indeed most of the antiquarians of Scotland, have all more or less turned their attention to the subject; but no two of them are agreed as to the purposes for which it was erected. Some suppose, from the circumstance of the cross being on the obverse side, that it was planted to commemorate the first establishment of Christianity in Scotland. This, however, is very unlikely; for, had such been its object, it is difficult to see what connection so many warlike figures could have had with it. Others maintain that it was raised in memory of the battle of Mortlach, which battle, having been gained by the Scots over the Danes, eventually led to the expulsion of the latter from the kingdom. This is also a very improbable hypothesis, the battle in question having been fought nearly twenty miles from the spot where the stone is erected. In fact, there is scarcely any event of national importance that occurred between the commencement of the tenth and the end of the twelfth centuries—for the date of the pillar is generally supposed to lie between those two periods—but has been supposed by some antiquarian or other, to have been the cause of its erection.

The hypothesis of the Rev. Charles Cordiner, a distinguished northern antiquarian of the last century, respecting the origin of this monument, appears to us the most probable. His opinion is, that it was raised to commemorate the defeat and expulsion from Scotland, by the Scots, of those Scandinavian adventurers mentioned in the "Annals of Torfans," who, joined by a number of chieftains from the opposite coast of Caithness, had, in the ninth century, established themselves at the neighboring promontory of Burghead;\* and who, during the hundred and fifty years they kept possession of the place, committed the most serious depredations throughout the surrounding country. In support of his hypothesis, Mr. Cordiner reasons in this way:

"In their sanguine endeavors to extend their sway, and at the same time secure a more speedy retreat to their lines, when carrying off booty, or baffled in any attempt, the aid of cavalry was of essential, and almost indispensable importance, and naturally became the distinguishing characteristic of their forces.

"Of consequence, as it was the great object of Caledonian policy and valor to seize their horses, in order to defeat their enterprises, so when, at a fortunate period, they succeeded in totally routing the Scandinavian bands, and compelling them to leave their shores, if they wished to erect a conspicuous memorial of the event, the most striking article would be to exhibit the seizure of the horses, and the inflicting of a capital penalty on their riders; and this is done in the most conspicuous department of the column.

"It is moreover evident, from the concurring testimony of history and tradition, that part of the troops, and warlike adventurers, which had embarked in the grand expedition undertaken by Olaus, Prince of Norway,

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\* Burghead is the most northern point in Scotland to which the expedition of Agricola penetrated. The Romans there encamped, and continued in the place for a considerable time. The traces of their camp are still distinctly to be seen.






about the year 1000, did reinforce the garrison at Eccialsbacca, in the Burgh of Moray, and made some daring advances towards the subduing of the surrounding countries—and that, soon after that period, their repeated defeats induced them wholly to relinquish their settlement in that province.

“No event was therefore more likely to become a subject of national gratitude and honor, than those actions in which the princes of Norway and their military adherents were totally defeated, and which so fully paved the way for returning peace to smile over these harrassed and extensive territories. And, in consequence of the Scandinavian forces finally evacuating their posts, a treaty of amicable alliance might be formed between Malcolm and Canute, or Sueno, King of Norway; and the august figures on the base of the cross have been sculptured to express that important reconciliation—while the figures on the adjacent edge of the obelisk, which are joined hand in hand, and in attitudes of friendly communication, may allude to the new degrees of mutual confidence and security which took place after the feuds were settled that are represented on the front of the column.”

The traditions of the country are certainly more in favor of this view of the matter than of any other hypothesis which has been advanced. The very name, indeed, given to the pillar, viz: “Sueno’s Stone,” which it has retained from time immemorial, shows that the opinion of the peasantry in the district always has been, that the Norwegian monarch must have been, in some way or other, connected with its erection.

## PERPETUAL FIRE OF BAKU.

N the Caspian Sea is the little promontory of Absheron, one of the most singular regions in the world. It is situated in Georgia, and was once considered a part of Asia; but since it has become a province of Russia, it has been reckoned as forming a portion of Europe. The surface of the promontory is barren, almost destitute of water, and utterly bare of trees. Its soil is saturated with naphtha, a very inflammable bituminous oil, which in some parts rises to the surface of the earth spontaneously, and may be found by digging almost everywhere. In many places enormous quantities of gas, similar in nature to our coal or oil gas, issue from orifices in the earth; this gas the inhabitants employ to light their houses, by conducting it through tubes, similar in principle to our gas-pipes, though more clumsy in construction. They use it also as fuel to dress their food, to warm their dwellings, and for many other purposes. The centre of action of this fiery matter is near the town of Baku, the chief place in the territory.

The ancient Persians were worshipers of fire: they adored the sun as its source, and in his absence they kept up perpetual fires as his representative. The advance of the Mohammedan religion extinguished, in a great measure, the faith of the fire worshipers; but some remains of the ancient

believers are still found scattered in Persia, and many of their body have been long settled in India, particularly at Bombay, where they constitute a very respectable and influential portion of the population. The perpetual fire of Baku would naturally be an object of attraction to these people; and we accordingly find that they have, from a remote period, had an establishment there. They have enclosed with a high wall a spot of ground, from which a vast quantity of gas issues, which they always keep burning. This place has been described by several travelers, the most recent of whom, a Russian, whose journal was published in 1833, arrived on the spot by night. "We saw the flame," he says, "at a considerable distance before our arrival. It was a singular spectacle; four principal jets of flame were first visible, and as we got nearer, a considerable number of smaller ones began to show themselves springing from the ground. The four jets rose to a great height, and illuminated all the surrounding country, which is barren and desert. At last we saw a high wall of white stone, above which rose four great tubes like chimneys; from these tubes issued the columns of flame we had first seen. We thought ourselves in the neighborhood of a palace of fairies."

Nothing is known of the state of this place in very remote times; but it is described by the Arabian author Massudi, who wrote 900 years ago. He speaks of a mine of white naphtha at Baku, from which a column of flame rises to a great height, visible on every side at the distance of 100 farsangs. As one farsang, on the lowest computation, must be much more than a mile, and probably three or four, the Oriental style of exaggeration is evident in this estimate, as it is in what follows, unless the state of things be greatly altered: "It makes a noise like thunder, and throws up inflamed masses of rock beyond the reach of sight."

We are not aware of any European writer who has mentioned this place earlier than the Russian traveler Alexander Nikitin, who saw it on his way to India in 1470; and he merely says that he saw at Baku the fire which burns eternally.

The Fire-worshippers at Baku generally reside at that unhealthy spot a longer or shorter time, according to the fervor of their faith. The shortest residence is five years; many stay there eight; and a very few, who are considered in the light of saints, remain there until death. As the Russian writer calls them Hindus, they are probably all from India. They live solely on vegetables, cultivated by their own hands, and each man dresses and eats his food alone in his own cell. Their maintenance is derived chiefly from the charity of their fellow-worshippers, one of whom, named Otumd, now resident at Astrakhan, furnishes the greatest portion. The owners of vessels navigating the Caspian Sea also frequently send them considerable presents, as a sort of payment for the benefit received from the fire maintained in the four lofty chimneys before-mentioned, which constitutes an excellent lighthouse.

Our traveler describes the appearance of the interior of the inclosure as very imposing. "We were struck with astonishment," he says, "at the sight before us. We found ourselves in a vast square perfectly light, and in the midst we saw a building, from which issued four large and lofty tubes vomiting flame. The light from this fire is not less surprising to strangers than it is dazzling. The cells of the Hindus are placed all round the walls. . . . The Hindus, with no other covering than a girdle and a



turban, came out of their cells. The dark color of their skin, their loose hair (for as many of them had no turban, it hung at full length in disorder,) and the leanness of their bodies, which showed nothing but bones, produced on us very singular sensations. The first who accosted us introduced us into his cell: the only furniture was a miserable carpet and two pitchers; but a beautiful rose-bush stood outside the door. . . . The cells were mostly small; flames were spouting out in nearly all of them, either directly from holes in the floor, or from clay tubes driven into the ground, which answer the purpose of candles."

In the midst of the enclosure is the place where these people burn their dead. It is a cave dug in the earth, about six feet square and three feet deep, and is covered with broad flat stones. This vault, like every other opening made in the ground, is always filled with gas. When a Fire-worshiper dies, the survivors smear his body with butter, and place it over the vault: they then set fire to the gas, which comes through the interstices between the stones, and the body is thus consumed. They afterwards carefully gather up all the ashes which have fallen through into the vault, and throw them to the winds. Thus ends the ceremony.

The gas is evidently of a similar nature to what we use, though, as it is said to be without smell, and to have no effect on the breath, it is probably purer than that which our establishments produce. Its flame is of a yellowish white, and very brilliant. This shows that it cannot be pure hydrogen, which burns with a faint blue flame. The heat it gives out in burning is very great, sufficient to calcine lime; and it is largely used for this purpose by the people of the country. When mixed with common air, it becomes explosive. The first discovery of this property was unlucky for the poor Fire-worshipers; it was made by one of them who happened to raise his torch near the ceiling of his cell, where the gas rises in consequence of its levity. It exploded, a portion of the building was thrown to the ground, and several persons were severely wounded. Since that time they have been very cautious about lifting up a light in their cells, and they ran away terribly alarmed at seeing the Russian traveler do so. But they are very willing to perform the experiment at any time for the amusement of strangers, at some distance from their dwellings. The place they choose for this object is the well whence they get water. They usually keep this well open, to allow the gas to escape; but when they cover it, a sufficient quantity is evolved in half an hour to produce an explosive mixture with the air that was previously in it. When this is effected, a person takes off the cover of the well and throws into it a handful of lighted straw. The explosion which follows is said to be terrific, which may be easily imagined, the well being 100 feet deep.

Many theories have been formed to account for the vast development of gas at Baku; the most probable seems to be, that the naphtha which abounds in and beneath the soil is decomposed by some internal fire. That there is such a fire at no great distance from the surface, there can be no question. There are a great many hot springs, and in some crevices of the calcareous rock near the perpetual fire the heat felt is so great that it is impossible to keep the hand there. The whole territory, as well as some of the islands in the neighborhood, are constantly subject to mud volcanoes. On one of those islands, named Svinoi Ostrov (Isle of Pigs,) not Sviatoi Ostrov (Holy Island,) as in some maps, Mr Vatsenko, Russian consul at

the court of Persia, was wrecked in 1826. The island, he says, is quite covered with volcanoes of mud; they are little heaps or swellings in the tenacious soil, which rise gradually with a peculiar noise to the height of two or three feet; they then burst like bubbles, water is thrown out, and their sides fall in. Outside they look like moist clay, and inside they have the appearance of burnt bricks: naphtha begins to flow out of the opening as soon as the water has ceased spouting. When one heap has disappeared, another rises near it, but not in the same place, and in this manner the whole island is covered; it has the appearance of an immense field grubbed up by pigs, which has induced the Russians to give it the name it bears. The whole of the surface is soft, and imbibes water like a sponge; after a shower of rain, it is a complete marsh, which will not bear a foot upon it.

The volcanoes of the Continent are much larger, and more worthy the name than those little elevations on Svinoi Ostrov. They have been frequently described, and Kœmpfer has given a strange drawing of one in his "*Amœnitates Exoticæ*." They have occasionally thrown out large stones and flame as well as water, which may account for Massudi's description.

The chief riches of the country consist in its naphtha. This useful bituminous oil is of two sorts, black and white. The latter is the most valuable, and it is also much rarer than the other; it is found only at one place, about a mile from the village of Sarakhan, where it is gathered in sixteen wells or pits. Of the black sort, the number of wells worked in 1833 was 109. Notwithstanding its name, this is by no means all black; it varies in quality from a coarse pitchy substance, which can be used for little better than calking ships, to a clear greenish oil, which serves admirably for lamps. The earth and sand in the neighborhood of the wells is so thoroughly impregnated with naphtha, that it forms an excellent fuel, and is used exactly like our coal; when it is found in large slabs, it is used like slates or tiles for roofing houses, for which purpose it is admirably fitted by its toughness and impermeability.

The naphtha is drawn from the wells, which vary from one to fifteen fathoms in depth, by means of buckets and windlasses, which are moved by men or horses. It is almost invariably found mingled with water, from which it is separated by being thrown into large ditches constructed near the wells, in which it is allowed to stand until the water by its superior specific gravity falls to the bottom. The naphtha is then gathered up in flat wooden scoops, and poured into large sheepskin bottles, which are then deposited in cellars well lined with cement, until they are wanted for exportation or home consumption.

The production of black naphtha is computed to be about nine millions of pounds per annum, while that of the white sort is under thirty thousand pounds. The quantity gathered in warm weather is much larger than what is produced in cold weather; it is also increased when the wind is southerly, and decreased if it blows from the north; and it is worthy of remark that the same weather and winds respectively augment and lessen the evolution of gas. It is a curious fact that unless the wells be frequently emptied, they cease altogether to be productive, and that a cessation of even two or three days in working them causes a sensible diminution; although in such cases a few days' regular work will restore the original



productiveness. May not the cause of this be that the naphtha, if allowed to remain in the well, will line the walls with a sort of varnish, and in this manner close up the pores, through which the filtration of a further supply would otherwise be effected?

The naphtha wells are exclusively worked by the people of Balakhani, a village of 792 inhabitants, of whom 344 only are males, an inferiority of number which may be caused by the unwholesomeness of their occupation. The whole of the white naphtha is exported to Astrakhan, where it sells at about three pence per pound. The greatest part of the black naphtha is exported to Persia, somewhat less than a million of pounds being retained in Georgia for domestic uses.

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## THE REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

**S**AN MARINO is the only one left of the many republics into which Italy was once divided, and is the smallest independent state of Europe. A rude, craggy mountain, about eleven English miles to the south of Rimini, and a few hillocks scattered around the mountain's base, comprise the whole of this republican territory, which is nowhere six miles across. The entire population does not much exceed 7000 souls. It is thus described by an English traveler: In the course of my walk, the bold rock on which San Marino stands, its rugged outline dotted here and there by a church, a convent, or a tower, formed for a long time the most striking feature in the landscape. I entered the dominions of the old republic by crossing a small stream, and, after three miles of ascent, in some parts very steep, and in others running zig-zag along the face of the mountain, I reached the "Borgo," which is a small town containing about 600 inhabitants. About three-quarters of a mile further on, and much higher, I came to "La Citta," or the city, which is the seat of government, and the residence of the more distinguished members of this miniature commonwealth. It does not seem much larger than the Borgo, but it is cleaner and handsomer, and has some buildings of a considerable size and in a pretty good style of architecture. There is not a single shop or inn, as nothing is allowed to be sold in the city.

The view from this spot, which is more than 2000 feet above the level of the sea, is particularly fine, and one of the best points whence to enjoy it is the top of the prison. The town of Rimini, the Marechia, and the dark Adriatic sea, lay before me; and turning to the West were the piled up Apennines, conspicuous among which, from the sugar-loaf form of the mountain it stands upon, was the celebrated fortress of San Leo. Descending from the prison top, I visited some horrid dungeons, many feet underground, and quite dark. These conveyed a disagreeable impression as to the character of the old republicans, but it was pleasant to learn, and honorable to their descendants, that these dungeons had not been used for many years, and that there was actually only one prisoner in the place,

whose offence was rather venial, and his treatment exceedingly mild. I found, however, that the inhabitants still piqued themselves, as in the days of Addison, on their love of justice, and their impartial and rigid administration of it. One of the *cittadini* told me the following story in point:—A Venetian, to whom a subject of the hill republic owed a sum of money, the payment of which had been demanded many times in vain, was at length induced, at the recommendation of a friend, to apply to one of the capitanei or presidents at San Marino. On arriving at the town, he was soon conducted to this dignitary of the state, whom he found with naked legs dancing in a huge tub, treading out grapes for wine. The Venetian, accustomed to the dignity, “the pomp and circumstance,” of his own city and government, turned with astonishment from such a dispenser of right and might, and began to repent him of his journey. As he had come, however, he told his story, and no sooner was it ended than the capitaneo despatched an assistant to summon the debtor to his presence. The man came forthwith; and, on being interrogated, confessed he duly owed the money, but said he could not pay it. The indignant capitaneo instantly ordered him to prison, and decreed that his house should be sold to meet the demand. This summary sentence very soon produced the amount of the debt from the San Marino man, who, it appears, was not so poor as he had pleaded he was, and the Venetian creditor returned home well satisfied. Some time after, having occasion to sue another debtor in the courts of Venice, and having experienced “the law’s delay” and its glorious uncertainty, he exclaimed (at least so say the citizens of the hill) “Val più un pistad ’uva di San Marino che diezi Parruconi di Venezia! (A grape-treader of San Marino is worth more than ten big-wigs of Venice.)”

The constitution of the republic is rather aristocratical than otherwise. Although an approach to universal suffrage is nominally admitted, and although it is prescribed in their original charters that the sovereign power is lodged wholly and solely in the Arengo, or great council, in which every family shall be represented by one of its members, all authority has gradually fallen into the council, called “of sixty,” but which in reality consists of only forty citizens. Again, half of the Council of Sixty were, by law, to be elected out of the plebeian order, the other half, and no more, chosen from among the nobility. Now, however, the council is wholly composed of the *richest* citizens, whose relative antiquity of descent or aristocracy of blood I could not ascertain.

The Arengo, or popular body, has sometimes been called together of late years in cases of extraordinary emergency. This is done merely by the ringing of a great bell, whose tones can very well be heard all over the republic. An old law enacts that every member who does not attend the summons be fined a sum about equal to an English penny, and that this fine be paid “*sine aliqua diminutione aut gratia*.”

The miscalled Council of Sixty nominate ten of their members, out of whom two are chosen by lot, and named Capitanei Reggenti. One of these capitanei has jurisdiction over the city, and the other over the country. Their power only lasts six months, and they cannot be reëlected to these supreme posts until after an interval of three years. The elections take place in March and in September, but the capitanei only take possession of their office in April or in October. Joined with them there is a commissary, who, according to the old constitution, *ought* to judge all civil and



criminal matters; and also (to avoid the partialities or prejudices likely to influence the subjects of so small a state, where every man knows every body, and has numerous family ties and connexions) he *ought* to be a foreigner—the native of some other Italian state—a Doctor of Laws, and a man of well-established integrity of character. This officer is chosen for three years and maintained at the public expense. The capitanei and the Council of Sixty—of which no one can be a member until he is twenty-five years old, and where no two individuals of the same family can sit at the same time—appoint, between them, to the few offices of this poor and simple state. The most important of these offices, after that of the commissary, are the physician's and the schoolmaster's. The physician, according to the letter of the constitution, ought also to be a foreigner. He must, moreover, keep a horse wherewith to visit speedily any patient in the country, and his election is only for three years.

At the time of Addison's visit the schoolmaster must have performed his duty conscientiously, as that elegant writer says, that he "scarcely met with any in the place that had not a tincture of learning;" and, in my time, from what I could observe during a short visit, reading and writing seemed common acquirements enough. Addison also had an opportunity of looking over their collection of laws, which were written in Latin, and had been printed at Rimini, by order of the Commonwealth of San Marino, in a folio volume. The book was entitled "*Statua Illustrissimæ Reipublicæ Sancti Marini*." In the chapter on public ministers, &c., there is a law mentioned by Addison, which provides that whenever an ambassador is despatched by the Republic to any foreign state he shall be allowed, out of the treasury, to the value of about one shilling per day during his mission! I could not help observing, even during the short stay I made, that, like some other citizens of small states, the people of San Marino were exceedingly susceptible and punctilious as to any criticisms made by their neighbors on their laws and customs, or on the dignity of their state. An anecdote is current illustrative of this feeling. About the end of the last century a citizen of San Marino heard an inhabitant of Rimini assert that the Republic was nothing more than a place of refuge for thieves, bankrupt traders, and vagabonds. The words of this sweeping accusation were reported to the "Council of Sixty," who immediately passed a law excluding forever from the territories of the Republic not only the offender but all his relations, and every person, whether related or not, who bore the same name. Thirty years after this, on a dreadfully stormy night, a man and woman who had lost their way demanded and readily obtained shelter in the house of a peasant at Serravalle, a hamlet just within the line of the republican territory. In the course of conversation the stranger addressed the woman who had arrived with him by her name, "*Signora Bava*;" now Bava was the name of the Riminese calumniator. As soon as the unlucky word was uttered, the peasant started up, exclaiming "*Via da casa mia ognuno col nome di Bava!*"—(Away from my house every one who bears the name of Bava!)—and, in spite of entreaties, and notwithstanding the pelting of the storm, the unfortunate woman was turned out of doors.

The origin of this poor little republic, which has survived so many mighty ones that have fallen around her, and still looks with freedom from her rocky seat over her prostrate and enslaved neighbor, Venice, is exceedingly



REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.



curious and interesting. Towards the end of the third century of the Christian Era, Rimini,—then called by its Latin name Ariminum—having completely fallen to ruins, the reigning Roman Emperor, Diocletian, undertook to restore the city, which is advantageously situated on the shores of the Adriatic Sea. To this end, he invited from the opposite coast of the Adriatic, which was his native place, a number of artists and workmen, and, in the words of an old local historian, “venne ad Ariminum un gran numero di architetti scallpellini, o, diciamo taglia-pietri, e muratori, e conessi un infinità d’ operai schiavoni.” (There came to Ariminum a great number of architects, chisel-men, or, let us say, stone cutters and bricklayers, and with them an infinitude of Slavonian workmen.) Among these Slavonian masons and builders, there was one Marino, a man of a good character, who soon distinguished himself as a fervent friend of the Christian church as then established in Italy.

After Diocletian had been the benefactor of Rimini, which, under the hands of Marino and his companions, soon rose from its ruins, that emperor became the scourge of all Italy, by instituting an abominable religious persecution. In ecclesiastical history this is called “the tenth persecution of the Christian church.” It was commenced by Diocletian, A. D. 303, and proved one of the most sanguinary of the attempts made to conquer men’s conscience and belief by force. In Rimini alone, according to the old historian from whom I have already quoted, “rivers of Catholic blood flowed, not to earth, but to heaven!” Driven to desperation, the Catholic population at last rose against the emperor’s pro-consul and their other rulers. A serious conflict, in which Marino took part with the Bishop of Forlì, Forlimpopoli, and other churchmen, ensued, and seems to have terminated disadvantageously for the persecutors. After this Marino withdrew to the rugged, but safe recesses of Monte Titano, as the mountain which is now the territory of the republic was then called. In that solitude he gave himself more and more up to devotion; and the rigid penances to which, in accordance with the notions of that early age, he subjected himself, soon obtained for him the reputation of sanctity, and attracted numbers to the place of his retreat. Many of his countrymen, who had come with him from Dalmatia to Rimini, had brought their wives and children with them; and it seems probable that these formed the original nucleus of the little independent state. At the same time, however, persecution and war would drive some of the native Italians of the plain to the safety of that mountain.

A few years after his first retreat, when something like peace was restored to the church, Marino descended from his rock, and attended an ecclesiastical conciliabulum held at Rimini. By this time the stone-mason was a dignitary of the Catholic hierarchy, for he was styled Diaconus, or Deacon. When he died, full of years and holiness, his ashes were buried on the mountain-top, and miracles were said to be wrought at his tomb. In later years he was canonized by the Pope, and the name of Monte Titano was changed into his name—San Marino. The sanctity thus attached to the spot, and the feelings of religion, have perhaps contributed as much in certain ages to the preservation of the republic from the hostile attack of its neighbors, as its smallness, poverty, and inoffensiveness.

When all the free States of Italy, except Genoa and Venice, by their mad internal dissensions, and constant wars with their neighbors, committed political suicide upon themselves, and, one by one, resigned their liber-

ties to the will of arbitrary princes, San Marino was too mean and poor to tempt either of these little despots to take forcible possession of it. The territory of the republic, which had been increased by purchases from a neighboring state in the twelfth century, and by donations from one of the popes in the fourteenth century, was, however, in process of time, curtailed and reduced to its original and present limits. More than a century after the time when Clementini wrote, it was again deprived of its liberties. In 1739, Cardinal Alberoni subjected it to the pope; but this second servitude, like the first, to the Counts of Carpegno and to Rimini, lasted only "for a short space of time," after which its independence and all its privileges were restored.

When Bonaparte, with the army of the French republic, appeared as the conqueror of Italy, (or rather of the Austrians *in* Italy,) in the neighborhood of San Marino, he sent a congratulatory deputation to the sister republic, which expressed the reverence felt by her young sister, France, for so ancient and free a commonwealth, and offered the state four pieces of artillery and an increase of territory. This was on the 11th of February, 1797. The cannon were gratefully accepted, but the other tempting offer was wisely declined.

At the end of the last, and at the beginning of the present century, when political malcontents were numerous, and rigidly pursued by hostile governments, San Marino was often the asylum of men of opposite parties at the same time; and the government only preserved peace by strictly prohibiting all political discussion among the refugees. The fear of incurring expulsion from the territory, and consequent seizure by their enemies, seems to have been sufficient to restrain the partisanship of the most violent, for the regulation was strictly observed. Among the most distinguished of these guests, was the Chevalier Delfico, a subject of the king of Naples, and an author of some eminence. He lived many years on the mountain, acquired the rights of citizenship, and ever afterwards styled himself in the title pages of the books he published, and in other documents, Delfico, Cittadino di San Marino. I knew this accomplished man in his old age, when he was no longer proscribed, and have heard him speak with grateful recollections of the hospitality and kindness he enjoyed, and of the honest, quiet habits of the poor and simple republicans. Still farther to show his gratitude, he had written a "History of San Marino," a curious and clever book, which I have in vain endeavored to obtain a sight of in England. The edition I was acquainted with in Italy was in quarto, and published at Venice.

At the time of my visit, (in 1819,) though there were no political refugees, there were several debtors and petty offenders from the neighboring states, that had taken refuge at San Marino. All the citizens capable of bearing arms were regularly drilled and trained. The territory of the republic, rugged as it is, yields a quantity of good wine and fruit, and the pasturage is abundant and fine. There are no springs or fountains on the mountain, but rain and snow-water are plentifully preserved in cisterns and tanks cut in the rock. The wine-cellars, similarly excavated, are deliciously cool and excellent. The wines of the hill are particularly lauded by an old historian of the republic, who says,— "I vini sono così amabili, purificati, gratiosi e buoni che non hanno da invidiare i claretti di Francia." (The wines are so mild, pure, agreeable, and good, that they have no need to envy the



clarets of France.) The largest of the churches, which contains his ashes, is dedicated to San Marino, but has nothing remarkable about it except a statue of the saint over the high altar, which holds in its hands the figure of a mountain crowned with three towers. The mountain and the towers are the appropriate arms of the commonwealth. As I stood by the tomb of the worthy Slavonian mason, I could not but reflect that, although it had not been destined to obtain such a "high and palmy state," his was a more honorable foundation of a republic than that laid by Romulus and his licentious, freebooting associates.

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## EXTRAORDINARY DELIVERANCE.

**T**HE following melancholy event and extraordinary deliverance from one of the most horrid deaths the human imagination can conceive, occurred in the English collieries about thirty-five years ago:

"About midway between the towns of Wednesbury and Bilston, on the great Holyhead Road, the traveler must have remarked, on crossing the canal at a place called Moxley Heath, one of the finest beds of bright red sand in the kingdom. This bed of sand is many yards thick, and being extensively used in the iron founderies, hundreds of boat loads are taken away for that purpose. A little to the left of this spot, on a Monday morning, about the period before named, and whilst the workmen were busily engaged at their labor in the coal mine underneath, a sudden 'crownings in,' (as it is emphatically termed by the colliers,) or falling in of the superincumbent strata, took place about the centre of the works, owing, as was supposed, to the bearings that are usually left, being too much weakened to support the heavy mass above. At this moment about fourteen or sixteen men were at work below, nearly all of whom were then employed at the extremity of the mine, and the disrapture happening about midway between the shaft of the pit and the situation where the workmen were engaged, the driftways were instantly filled with the falling mass; consequently all escape for them was cut off, and their lights extinguished by the violent concussion of air, &c. The few workmen that happened to be near the bottom of the shaft were instantly drawn up to the surface. The alarm was given, and spread like wildfire through all the surrounding working districts. Thousands were seen rushing to the fatal spot as to a common focus—fathers, mothers, wives and children by their cries adding to the misery of the scene. Nearly all work in the neighborhood was suspended, both employers and workmen assembling to render assistance. Of course the fate of the ten or eleven men stopped up in the mine was all matter of conjecture. Whether the fallen matter had choked up the farther workings and buried them alive, or supposing this not to be the case, whether they could exist without food and fresh air until their deliverance could be effected, was equally matter of doubt.

After some consultation the engine was set to work, and parties of workmen went down the pit in the hope of clearing away the rubbish below so as to get to the unfortunate men, whilst loads of faggots and straw were emptied into the hollow formed on the surface by the fall, (which resembled an inverted cone of from fifteen to twenty yards in diameter,) for the purpose of stopping up the fissures and preventing the running down of any more loose sand, &c., from the top. This course was persevered in for some time, but it was at length found that their labors were ineffectual, as sand, water, &c., kept pouring down as fast as it could be removed from the bottom. Another consultation was now held, when the only hope of saving the men that remained was, the driving a head through the solid coal in a winding direction round the fractured part into the farther end of the mine. This was a work of great labor and difficulty, as near 100 yards in length of solid coal was necessary to be penetrated by the shortest possible cut. Subscriptions were raised, and the different masters set a laudable example to their men by their personal assistance. Working gangs were formed, sufficiently numerous to relieve each other by short relays. This undertaking was instantly commenced with the greatest alacrity on the part of the workmen, some cutting away with their picks, others clearing away the coal from behind—the men retiring to rest as they became fatigued, and their places occupied by fresh hands. The head was driven no larger than was necessary for the men to sit to their work, and resembled a tunnel. Day and night the work proceeded, until the close of the week, the public anxiety increasing as the cutting advanced; the absorbing questions early and late being, ‘Has anything been yet ascertained of the fate of the unfortunate colliers?’

“On the following Sunday morning a rumor was spread that the men engaged in driving had heard sounds from within like the distant tapping of hammers, the tapping becoming more distinct as the work proceeded. All now was increased activity. They were no longer laboring without strong hopes of saving some of their fellow creatures, and this feeling gave an additional stimulus to their exertions. Early on Monday morning (one week from their incarceration) it became generally known that voices had been heard within audible enough to warn the drivers (who, in their anxiety to shorten the cutting, were approaching too close to the fracture) to keep more to the left. It was also pretty well understood, for some miles around, that the head would be driven through in the course of that day, and again the neighboring population poured to the scene in countless numbers—the diverging roads presenting one moving mass. About one o’clock in the afternoon the head was completed, sufficiently large to allow the workmen to enter, when nine men and one boy were found, alive indeed, but in the last stage of exhaustion! The news was instantly communicated to the assembled crowd above. The burst of feeling at this announcement cannot be described. At this awful moment the sensations of the assembled relatives of these unhappy men were most intense. One poor woman, it was stated, had died with excess of joy upon learning that her husband was still alive, after a whole week of the most agonizing suspense. Medical practitioners were in attendance, and by their directions the air was admitted into the confined portion of the works by degrees: warm gruel and other restoratives were carefully and sparingly administered to the sufferers down in the works; after a proper interval, they



were gradually brought out, enveloped in blankets, drawn to the surface, each in the lap of a sturdy miner, instantly put into coaches, which were ready in waiting, and conveyed to their respective homes.

"It was now ascertained that but one or two individuals and a horse or two had perished. One poor fellow was passing through the drift-way at the time of the fall, and was buried in the rubbish, but not so completely as to cause instant death. He lingered for some time; and his unfortunate companions, unable to render him assistance, heard his cries for help, as they became gradually weaker, till life was extinct. It also appeared that the sufferers had made a fruitless effort to effect their own deliverance by removing the fallen earth as long as their strength would permit. They had probably taken a meal with them, as is usual with colliers when they descend the pit, and had caught a little water in their caps, which had helped to allay their thirst, and this was their only sustenance during the seven days and nights that they were stopped up; but they had also heard the blows of the pick as the head was being driven through, and the hope that their deliverance would be effected had doubtlessly contributed to sustain their sinking spirits; nevertheless, had any relaxation taken place in the efforts that were made for that purpose, the consequences must have been fatal to them. One man had a son with him in the mine, a boy about twelve or thirteen years old, who sat upon his father's knees, and slept the greater part of the time, occasionally waking and crying for his mother, then falling asleep again. One remarkable fact is, that on being asked if they knew the day of their deliverance, they supposed it was on Friday. It would be naturally enough thought that in their dark and dreary confinement time would have dragged on so heavily that they would have supposed the duration longer than it actually was; but it is probable that the close and half stifled nature of their situation brought on drowsiness, and that they had all slept more or less. It is believed they all ultimately recovered."

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## THE CHLAMYPHORUS TRUNCATUS.

**T**HE *Chlamyphorus Truncatus*, or *Pechichiago*, is a little animal belonging to the order *edentata*—an order which includes mammalia destitute of incisor teeth, and sometimes of teeth altogether. The first detailed account we have of the *chlamyphorus* is given by Dr. Harlan, professor of comparative anatomy to the Philadelphia Museum; who, however, had only the opportunity of examining an imperfect specimen.

The animal is a native of Chili, where, like a mole, it burrows in the rich soil of the valleys, living for the most part underground, in quiet seclusion. Concealed in its subterranean retreats, it is regarded by the natives as a curiosity, and indeed, independent of its being hidden from observation, as it seldom visits the surface, at least during the light of day, it appears to be extremely rare. Its food, so far as we are assured by its dentition and the



CHILAMPHORUS TRUNCATUS.






imperfect accounts received respecting its habits, is insectivorous, and doubtless consists of such as like itself inhabiting the soil beneath the surface, become the objects of its pursuit without calling it from its obscurity. Night is most probably the season of its activity, and of its unfrequent visits to the "upper world."

Few animals with which we are acquainted are better qualified for a subterranean mode of life, or better furnished with the means of "progressing" through the soil, or forming galleries and chambers. The top of the head, and the whole of the upper surface of the body, are covered with a thin shell of a consistence between horn and leather, divided by intersecting furrows, into a series of bands or strips, each strip being itself made up of fifteen or twenty plates of a square form, except on the head, which is covered with a single plate composed of a mosaic-work of rounded and irregular portions. This horny covering or shield is not fixed by the whole of its inferior surface to the integuments beneath, as is the case with the armadillo, but merely rests on the back, free throughout, "excepting along the spine of the back and top of the head; being attached to the back, immediately above the spine, by a loose cuticular production, and by two remarkable bony processes on the top of the *os frontis* (bone of forehead), by means of two large plates which are nearly incorporated with the bone beneath; but for this attachment, and the tail being firmly curved beneath the belly, the covering would be very easily detached." The extremity of the tail is formed like a paddle. "The whole surface of the body is covered with fine silk-like hair, (of a delicate straw color), longer and finer than that of the mole, but not so thick. The anterior of the chest is large, full, and strong; the anterior extremities short, clumsy, and powerful." The hand, which is amazingly thick and compact, is furnished with five powerful but compressed nails, which, arranged together in their natural situation, constitute one of the most efficient scrapers or shovels which can be possibly imagined; and expressly adapted for progression under ground, but in an equal ratio ill-fitted for celerity on the surface. The hind legs are comparatively weak, the feet being long and somewhat resembling the human; the toes are furnished with small flattened nails. Sight is but a second-rate sense, as it regards its importance in the economy of an animal living in darkness beneath the ground;—the organs of vision, therefore, are almost as little developed as in the mole, being very minute, and buried in the long silky fur; by which the circular orifices of the ears are also equally concealed. The head is almost conical in its figure, going off from a broad base to a pointed snout, furnished with an enlarged cartilage, as in the hog, and doubtless for the same purpose, of grubbing and burrowing for food. In accordance with the details of external configuration the skeleton is equally indicative of the creature's habits. The skull is firm, and prevented from being pressed upon by the shield, which rests on two solid projections, as seen in the annexed sketch. The bones of the forelimbs are thick, short, and angular; the scapulæ broad and strong; the ribs thick, and capable of resisting great pressure. The hip-bones are of singular construction, and admirably formed for protecting the internal organs from injury. Such is an outline of the structure and habits of the chlamyphorus, an animal which, though bearing in some points a close analogy both to the mole and the armadillo, yet possesses characters so exclusively its own, as to render it one of the most interesting and remarkable of modern discoveries

in zoology. Of this rare animal two specimens alone exist, one in the Museum of Philadelphia, the other, whose skeleton is perfect, in the Museum of the Zoological Society of London.

## CAUSES OF WHIRLWINDS, ETC.

HIRLWINDS, Pillars of Sand, and Waterspouts form a class of remarkable phenomena not usually ranked together, but which we are inclined to refer to the principle of electricity. In the explanations generally given it is assumed that there are currents of air blowing in different directions, the oblique meeting of which causes an eddy or vortex, having a vacuum in its interior. Against this hypothesis it may be objected that, in the greater number of instances recorded, the air has been either calm or with a wind moderate and steady without any cross currents. If these meteors had a mechanical origin of this kind, they ought to abound most where variable winds and storms prevail, as on sea coasts, near headlands, and among hills. On the contrary, they are most rare in such cases, rather affecting climates and seasons of hot still atmosphere, in desert plains or tropical seas. Besides, in order to form a vortex, it is necessary that a coherent body be present to deflect the current into the tangential motion producing the whirl. A vortex cannot be formed in the free atmosphere, whatever be the respective velocities or angle of meeting of currents, and, according to all experience, a shift of wind is preceded by a calm, lasting until one of the currents has obtained predominance. That waterspouts and whirlwinds are independent of motion in the air is made evident by their having often a rapid progression, although the air around them be still, and by their having been seen even to advance against a wind then blowing; and when several waterspouts have been in sight at once, some have been stationary, others running about without any common direction.

In assigning these phenomena to the agency of electricity, there are no conditions assumed the existence of which can be disproved; and it cannot be denied that the cause is adequate to the effect attributed to it. We may distinguish two kinds of them, according as the electricity has accumulated in the earth, and discharges itself into the air, or, as the electricity is emitted from a charged cloud, exercising a powerful induction upon the surface of the earth beneath, but without exploding. In the former case, which is peculiar to land, the resulting action constitutes the whirlwind or the pillar of sand, the different appearance of which is owing to the nature of the soil from which they rise. Whirlwinds are of most frequent occurrence in those countries not free from earthquakes and dry hot seasons during a limited time of the year, such as the wide valley of the Mississippi. Compared with the pillars of sand they are more terrible in their destructive energies, but they are more casual, and are generally single. Pillars of sand are confined to the deserts of Africa and Hindostan; they are individually less dangerous, but they are not to be despised if it be true



that each of them may deposit a quantity of suffocating dust, forming a hillock of greater height than a man, and that countless numbers may be stalking across the arid plain with inevitable speed.

The electricity, which we believe to be the prime mover of these extraordinary spectacles, may possibly have different sources, and, we are inclined to suspect, a less superficial excitation of that in the whirlwind. But, however the charge may be derived, when it has accumulated to such intensity that the electrical inertia of the air is unable to repress it, it will rush upwards in a stream, communicating an ascending motion to the air, and bearing along with it whatever light mobile particles may be within its influence.

If there were in the superincumbent atmosphere a sufficient mass to supply by induction the requisite quantity of the opposite electricity, then the accumulation might have been discharged in the ordinary manner by explosion. In the absence of this, the electricity, taking the direction in which it meets with least resistance, tends to dissipate itself in a stream through the air so long as it can force a passage. The stream expands in its progress by its own elasticity, so that its diameter is greater as it recedes from the earth, often describing very exactly an inverted cone. While the stream continues, the opposite kind of electricity is induced into the air along its path, and flows downwards towards the point of emission, or apex of the cone, where the primary charge is most concentrated. Now, it has been proved by experiment, that every electric current contains within itself a revolving action, the consequence of the attraction of the opposite electric surfaces. To this property of an electric we may therefore assign the origin of the spiral motion of the whirlwind, conceiving that it results from the longitudinal or ascending motion of the stream, influenced by the circular or revolving motion of the two electricities round each other. The velocity of the spiral motion is too great to be followed by the eye, and its mechanical effects, exhibited in the lifting of loaded wagons, the leveling of stone-walls, the cutting through fences, trees, and huts, as if with an edge tool, are ascribable to no other physical cause than electrodynamic.

Waterspouts have the same principles of action, but in them the accumulation exists in a low heavy cloud, which has induced the opposite electricity into the earth beneath, without finding a prominent point to facilitate an explosion. The charge is gradually neutralized by combination with that rushing in a stream from below, and carrying with it dust from the plain, and vapor, or rather a mist, from waters. The watery particles being again aggregated into drops, sometimes as large as cherries, descend in torrents, and a circulation is thus established while the accumulation exists.

The spouts or tubes, apparently let down from the cloud, are formed by the vapor or mist attracted by the electricity which has elongated itself into a protrusion by an effort to discharge itself.

## SUBMARINE NAVIGATION.

**P**LANS for effecting the navigation of vessels under the surface of the water have often been discussed, and have more than once been tried with some success; and although the motives which led to the attempt have usually been rather discreditable than otherwise, there can be no doubt that upon occasion the faculty of traveling under water might be found useful.

If, on the coming on of a storm, a ship could, as the little nautilus is said to do on a like occasion, furl up her sails, and descend to the depths of ocean, to emerge again when calm should be restored, the danger of foundering at sea would evidently be much reduced, and the timid might venture to undertake a voyage without apprehension. It may be feared that dangers of another sort would more than compensate for the exemption from storms on the deep sea; and in shallow waters the expedient would be obviously inapplicable. Even if perfect safety from the ordinary sources of danger could thus be obtained, it must be at such an expense of time, space, and convenience, as to be out of the reach of most persons.

Writers of the middle ages have mentioned submarine vessels, though somewhat vaguely, and generally rather as being possible than as actually put in practice; some have been more particular, but their accounts are equally fanciful, and Alexander the Great, or some other ancient worthy, is usually the hero of the tale. About the sixteenth century we come to something more positive: the inhabitants of the Ukraine are stated to have been at that epoch in the habit of using such vessels, in order to be able to escape from the Turkish galleys, by which they were frequently pursued. Soon after we have a more distinct account of a submarine boat nearer home. Cornelius van Drebbel, a mechanician and writer of some renown in his day, constructed a boat in London which he navigated beneath the surface of the Thames. His vessel contained twelve rowers, besides passengers, and it is said that on one occasion King James I. went on board for the sake of witnessing the experiment. To make the story more wonderful, Van Drebbel is stated by Boyle to have found out a liquid which would restore to its original vital state, air vitiated by breathing, so that he could remain as long as he pleased under water. If this be true, Van Drebbel's chemical science was greater even than his mechanical skill; but, to judge from our present knowledge of chemistry, there can be no doubt that Boyle was misinformed on this matter: possibly the liquid might be a pretence to hide the real mode of obtaining air by tubes from above the surface. Mersenne, in 1644, speaking of this vessel, says: "It is known that a ship was built in England by Cornelius Drebbel, which swam under the water;" but although he speaks of glass, pebbles, and horn, for giving light in such ships, and proposes a leather tube for admitting air, he says nothing of Drebbel's liquid, which he was sufficiently credulous to have fully believed, if he had heard of it.

The treatise of Mersenne on submarine navigation is part of a very curious work treating on almost everything. He speaks of ships that may be



made of either metal or wood, to run with wheels on the bottom of the sea, and where the sea was too deep, to be moved with oars. He dwells on the safety from storms in such vessels, because, as he says, their force never reaches a greater depth than three or four fathoms: he says such a ship should be in the form of a fish, but alike at both ends; that the oars should be broad like paddles, and easily turned, so as to make the ship go backwards or forwards, upward or downwards. He thinks persons might remain a month at the bottom of the sea in such a vessel; that they might grind corn with mills moved by asses, bake bread, cook their victuals, and carry on trade and manufactures. A little further on he says it would be even possible to colonize the bed of the sea, and live all one's life there; he has no doubt the colonists would learn in time to get from the sea enough to live upon, although they might occasionally come up to procure wine or water, or a supply of fresh air. "How easily," he exclaims, "could they reach in this way the north or south poles, as it is well known the sea never freezes to the bottom!" After this he takes a still wider flight, and thinks it not quite impossible that a man might become a fish, and live altogether without air, although he admits it to be doubtful; but he points to the example of rope-dancers and jugglers, who by practice learn to do many things which seem at first equally impossible, and which, if he had not himself seen, he could not have believed, had they been sworn to. "Who knows," says he, "whether the lungs may not be so refreshed by the water, that men may do without air, as many fishes do; and perhaps this air which is mixed with the water may serve for this purpose." Mersenne frequently writes as if he had really done a good deal of what he talks about; but one or two expressions show that he never saw a submarine ship. Thus he says that if any body will make such a vessel, he will show how to cook food in it. A few years after Mersenne, Bishop Wilkins published his "Mathematical Magic," in which he writes of submarine navigation much in the style of Mersenne: his immediate object seems to have been the finding of articles which had been lost by shipwreck; but his successors have generally aimed at producing a warlike engine, which should come secretly under a ship, and blow it into the air with gunpowder. This was tried in the Thames more than a century ago by Dr. Desaguliers; and in 1777 by the American Bushnell in the river Delaware. Bushnell's boat, which has been well described, was constructed with great ingenuity. Its shape has been compared to that of a tortoise, but it was more like a gigantic walnut only a little flattened. It was made of metal, well closed on all sides, except at one hole, where the operator entered, and this he closed after him. There was no method of procuring air when beneath the surface; so that it was necessary to get up as soon as the air was consumed. All operations were performed by rods passing air-tight through the sides; one rod moved a sort of a spiral oar, shaped like the worm of a endless screw, and standing perpendicularly above it: by turning this backwards or forwards, the vessel sank or rose; another rod turned a similar oar, placed horizontally, which moved the vessel forward or backwards; but the whole machine was first brought as nearly as practicable to the specific gravity of the surrounding medium by opening a stop-cock to admit water, which might be driven out again by a forcing pump. A barometer-gauge showed the depth which the vessel had reached, and a compass the direction of its motion; and as a candle would have consumed too much air, bits of phosphorus were placed upon these

instruments to show their indications. A large quantity of lead was attached to the bottom of the machine, to serve as ballast, and of this about two hundred weight could be detached by the turning of a screw, which would leave the vessel light enough to rise rapidly to the surface in case of danger from want of air. There were many other contrivances for various necessary purposes, and the whole construction showed an ingenuity that might have been valuable; but the spirit of modern times is against such a treacherous mode of warfare as that intended by this machine; and the failures incident to the awkwardness of a first attempt threw a discredit over the invention.

The next experiment was that of Fulton, who in 1801 made a vessel, which he called the *Nautilus*, nearly on Bushnell's plan, except that he had a copper vessel to contain condensed air for respiration. This was in France; but he met with no encouragement from Buonaparte, and he was induced soon after to offer his services to the British government, under whose auspices he tried some experiments in England, which failed of their purpose. He subsequently returned to America, where he appears to have had more success. At his death in 1815, he was employed in building a ship which was intended to be just on a level with the surface of the sea; so that a man could put his head out of a hole in the deck to see what was going on. Captain Montgery, a few years ago, proposed to build a ship of war, which he called *l'Invisible*: he gives minute directions for its construction; but we are not aware that he put his plans in execution.

The most interesting attempt at submarine navigation in recent times is that of the well-known smuggler Johnston, who was employed by some wealthy parties to liberate Napoleon from his prison of St. Helena. Johnston's vessel, which was built in the Thames, was nearly 100 feet long, and was intended to float on a level with the surface, or at least to sink very little below it. It was proposed that this ship should approach St. Helena towards evening, and that it should wait until the illustrious captive should receive notice of the neighborhood of his liberator. It was expected that he would be ready to embark immediately, and it was then intended to depart for the United States. The vessel was nearly finished when the British Government received notice of its destination. It was consequently seized, and the death of Napoleon, which occurred about the same period, put an end to the scheme altogether. Johnston was afterwards employed in making experiments with a view of destroying the French fleet at Cadiz; but the dissolution of the Cortes put an end to his enterprise.

A floating, partly submerged propeller, torpedo vessel, has lately been invented by James Nasmyth, of Patricroft, England, for destroying large ships of an invading fleet.

Mr. Nasmyth is the inventor of the steam hammer, which bears his name, and various other useful inventions, and besides, he is a first rate astronomer and mathematician. The following is his own account of the invention:

"The principles on which the arrangement and construction of the floating mortar is based, consist, in the first place of a monster self-exploding shell, so arranged as to explode on having its breech end crushed against the breech of the mortar, the self-exploding cap being situated there. In order to enhance the destructive effect upon the enemy's ship, the shell is so far submerged as to tear its way into the enemy six feet under water line.



Next, to protect the shell from the effect of the water while resting in the chamber of the mortar, it is rendered water proof by being inclosed within a perfectly water tight copper case, which will so effectively secure it from the action of the water as that it may remain, if need be, for years in the chamber of the mortar, submerged, as before said, six feet under water line, and ready for service at any time. The crush consequent on coming in contact with the side of the enemy is the agent whereby the monster shell is made to explode. A very moderate velocity of the floating mortar would, when brought up against the side of the enemy, prove sufficient for this purpose; so much so, that, in order to obviate the chance of its explosion by accidental contact with any other object, I have so placed the flange joint of the copper case against the mouth of the mortar, that the crush against the side of the enemy, resulting from a speed of two or three miles per hour, shall be sufficient to overcome the resistance of this flange, and crush the self-exploding cap at the breech end of the shell against that of the mortar, and so cause it to explode and tear its fearful way through the side of the enemy. Thus it will be evident that we can never fail to render the shell effective, inasmuch as that it is the very fact of contact with the side or hull of the enemy that brings the self-exploding agency into action. No ship that has ever been built, either wood or iron, could survive the fearful hole which a monster shell, exploded under such circumstances, would produce.

The next feature is the intimate union of our mortar with the hull of the screw steam-vessel, which transports it direct to the object which we desire to destroy. The mortar is made part and parcel of the vessel, and so situated as to unite the most effective mechanical arrangement with the strongest position of the vessel, viz., "end on," so that the entire mass of our vessel (mortar and all) is brought into play, as the means whereby the concussion or recoil due to the explosion of the shell is absorbed by the entire mass of the floating mortar, so that no sensible recoil or concussion would be experienced.

Next is the manner in which the crew who attend to the navigation of the floating mortar, together with the steam engine, boiler, and screw, are protected from the action of shot, whether red-hot or cold. This object is attained by giving the vessel, in all directions where assailable, such a thickness of timber as that no shot of whatsoever description can penetrate to the interior. To insure this, the hull of our floating mortar will be made at least ten feet thick, of poplar wood, which material is admirably adapted for the purpose, by reason of its lightness, toughness, and incombustibility. Red-hot shot might lodge in it, but would fail to set it on fire. A red-hot shot would only char a few inches of the timber around it and cool at its leisure, and from the extent to which the hull would be submerged, the portion above water presents no surface favorable for the effective action of shot; whilst, as there will be most ample accommodation in the interior for a high pressure engine and boiler, with direct action screw-propeller, there is nothing to prevent our obtaining a velocity of eight or nine miles an hour, although for the actual objects of the vessel a speed of five or six miles would be ample. The draught of the engine furnace would cause perfect ventilation for the crew, which need not consist of more than three or four handy men.

I would observe, in conclusion, that as this class of vessel is chiefly

designed for defence against invasion, and would not have to act against an enemy, probably, at greater distances than one or two miles from our shore, it could speedily return for another shell; the means for lodging which in the chamber of the submerged mortar are most simple, but not needful at present to describe. I conceive, however, that the total destruction of one enemy's ship at each trip would be sufficient service. Three or four such floating mortars, each of which sending to the bottom of the sea the largest ships an invading enemy might dare to bring towards our shore, would make such a demonstration as would strike terror into the largest fleet that molested a peaceful nation; and not fail to confirm the maxim, that the best way to prevent war is to render the results so terrible as that evil disposed nations will think twice ere they face such wholesale destruction as our floating mortars would not fail to deal out to them."

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## THE DRUIDS.

**A**MONG the ancient inhabitants of England and of France, formerly called Gaul, as well as among some other nations of antiquity, the Druids were priests or ministers of religion. They were also the instructors of the young, and were the only learned men of the nations to which they belonged. Although these men flourished long after civilization had made great progress among neighboring nations, yet they did not make use of writing, but their scholars were obliged to get by heart all their lessons, from hearing them repeated by their masters, the Druids.

In general, little was known about very ancient tribes and nations, until the Romans invaded their countries and conquered them. So it is from the Romans that we have derived our knowledge of the habits, character and religion of the Druids. The Druids of Britain were very celebrated. There has been much dispute about the derivation of the word *Druid*, but it is most probable that it comes from an old British word, *dru*, meaning *oak*, because the Druids held the oak-tree almost sacred; it was their favorite tree, and their groves contained no other.

Little is known concerning them before the age of Julius Cæsar, the Roman, who invaded Britain after having subdued Gaul, about fifty-four years before Christ. Cæsar says that they were divided into several classes; the priests, the soothsayers, the poets, the judges, and instructors of youth. The priests, those Druids who were called so by way of distinction, had the charge of the religious ceremonies. They worshipped their gods, and offered sacrifices to them upon altars. Their temples, or places of worship, were very singular. They were generally circles of vast standing pillars, over which they sometimes laid huge stones, making a circle in the air. In the middle stood the altar-stone. Of this kind was the celebrated Stone-henge, near Salisbury, in England. In the island of Anglesey, near the northern extremity of Wales, there are Druidical pillars yet remain



ing. This island is supposed to have been the residence of the chief, or Arch-Druid, of Britain.

The Druids had very strange ideas about religion. They thought that the common people could not understand the simple and rational principles of religion, and so they invented foolish fables and superstitions, and deluded the masses to worship the sun, and be idolaters. They had fires sacred to the sun, like the priests of Baal, of whom we read in the Bible. The Druids were criminal enough to sacrifice human beings to their gods, and this cruelty, which they persisted in, notwithstanding all remonstrance, was the cause of their destruction. The poets, or bards, according to some, did not properly belong to the class of Druids, because they did not mix religion with their songs. They inspired the people to warlike actions, and sang the praise of patriotism and bravery. The Druids studied astronomy, and made great proficiency in the science.

We all know what terror and astonishment an eclipse, or any singular appearance in the sky, creates among an ignorant people, who do not know the causes of these things, or the means of finding out, beforehand, at what time they will happen. Persons among such people, who can foretell any occurrence, even a change of the seasons, are looked upon as inspired with a knowledge more than human. By such arts the Druids extended and strengthened their influence over the people. The soothsayers even pretended to be acquainted with the intentions of Divine Providence! The Roman soothsayers, or fortune-tellers, pretended to foretell events by the appearance of the entrails of beasts that were sacrificed on their altars; in the same way, but with much greater cruelty, the Druidical soothsayers examined the bleeding bodies of human victims.

When the Roman Suetonius determined to put an end not only to the ceremonies of the Druids, but to the priests themselves, they took refuge in the island of Anglesey. Here they were determined to make a bold resistance. Having some hope of gaining a victory over the Romans, they kindled large fires, in which they intended to consume the Roman prisoners, should they take any. Suetonius landed near Parthamel. The Druids, in great numbers, encircled the army of their countrymen, urging them to be brave, and praying for the vengeance of Heaven upon the invaders. The scene was rendered more terrific to the Romans by the appearance of the British women, who were dressed in black, and ran yelling to and fro, brandishing torches. However, the Romans were brave men, and they conquered. They cut down the sacred groves of oaks; they demolished the temples of the priests, and cruelly threw them into their own fires.

The Druids, who were the judges in all cases which required a recourse to law, settled these matters by their opinion, from which there was no appeal except to the Arch-Druid. As the Druids were thought to receive knowledge and instruction directly from the gods, they had the power of making, altering, and executing laws. Any persons who desired to possess the great power of the order, could become Druids, but only by a long course of very strict study, and a life of privation, which not many had patience to go through.

The schools of the Druids, in Britain, were very famous before the invasion of the Romans. Even youth from Gaul came thither to be instructed in the branches which they taught. Scholars took an oath not to betray the secrets and learning which they were taught; and thus we may see

how selfish was the system of the Druids, and how much opposed it was to the extension of knowledge. Students always resided with their teachers and school-fellows, and were forbidden to converse with any others. Academies were numerous, one being attached to almost every temple of note. Instruction was conveyed in verse. The whole circle of the sciences, with which the Druids were acquainted, was taught in twenty thousand verses, which pupils were twenty years in committing to memory.

The Druids measured time not by the days, but the nights, guided by the changes of the moon. They had so great a veneration for the oak, that they never performed any ceremony without being adorned with garlands woven of its leaves. Those who professed a knowledge of medicine would never betray the secrets by which they cured the sick. They were, without doubt, only acquainted with the healing powers of a few herbs. They placed great faith in the virtues of the plant mistletoe, probably from its growing on the oak-tree. They called it by a British name, meaning "all-heal." The efficacy of this plant they thought depended on certain ceremonies to be observed in gathering it. Among the annual festivals of the Gauls and Britons was that in which the Arch-Druid cut the mistletoe from the oak. This ceremony was conducted with great pomp. When they found an oak which had the rare plant upon it, they made preparations for a banquet beneath. Two milk-white bulls were tied to it by the horns, and then the Arch-Druid, dressed in a snowy robe, ascended the oak, and detached the mistletoe with a golden knife. Sacrifice and feasting followed. On May-day a festival in honor of the sun was held. The sun was called Bel, Belinus, and some other names.

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## ISABELLA OF SPAIN.

**I**SABELLA, queen of Castile, was born at Madrigal, in that kingdom, April 22, 1451. Her father, John II., after an inglorious reign of forty-eight years, died in 1454, lamenting that he had not been born the son of a mechanic, instead of King of Castile. Isabella had but a slender prospect of obtaining the crown during the early part of her life. She had two brothers, Henry and Alfonso, the former of whom acceded to the throne at the death of John. Isabella retired with her mother to the little town of Arevalo, where she lived many years in obscurity. Her mother, who appears to have been a woman of a strong religious turn of mind, bestowed great care on her education, and inculcated the strictest lessons of piety upon her daughter, which did not fail to exercise an important influence upon her future career. On the birth of a daughter to her brother, Isabella was removed from her retirement to the royal palace, by Henry, who, being disliked by his subjects, feared the formation of a party adverse to his interests. At the royal court, surrounded by all the pleasures and seductions most dazzling to youth, she did not forget the early lessons imbibed in her seclusion, and the blameless purity of her conduct shone with



additional lustre amid the scenes of levity and licentiousness by which she was surrounded.

Before this event, she had been solicited in marriage by various suitors, among whom was Ferdinand of Arragon, who afterwards became her husband. His first application, however, was unsuccessful. She was next betrothed to his elder brother, Carlos, while yet a mere child. That prince dying before the marriage could be completed, she was promised by her brother to Alfonso, King of Portugal. Isabella was but thirteen at this time, and the disparity of their ages was such that neither threats nor entreaties could induce her to consent to the union. The selfish and unprincipled Henry, who looked upon his sister only as an object of trade, next made an attempt to dispose of her for the purpose of gaining over a powerful family in Castile, which gave him great trouble by their opposition. He offered her in marriage to Don Pedro Giron, grand master of the order of Calatrava. This man was well known to be a most detestable character. He was a fierce and turbulent leader of a faction, and his private life was stained with almost every vice. Such a person, vastly inferior in birth, was selected as the husband of the young and virtuous Isabella. The pope granted a dispensation from the vow of celibacy, which the grand master, as the companion of a religious order, had been obliged to utter, and splendid preparations were immediately made for the nuptials.

Isabella was at this time in her sixteenth year. When she understood in what manner she was now to be sacrificed to the selfish policy of her brother, and that, in case she proved reluctant, compulsory measures were to be adopted, she was filled with the liveliest grief and indignation. She confined herself in her apartment, abstaining from all food and sleep for a day and night, imploring Heaven, in the most piteous manner, to save her from this dishonor, even at the cost of her life. As she was bewailing her hard fate to her faithful friend, Beatriz de Bodadilla, that high-spirited lady exclaimed, "God will not permit it; neither will I;" and drawing forth a dagger from her bosom, she solemnly vowed to plunge it into the heart of the master of Calatrava as soon as he appeared. The affair, happily, did not come to so tragical a catastrophe. Her dreaded suitor was suddenly carried off by sickness, in the midst of his magnificent preparations.

Troubles now began to thicken around the weak and vicious Henry. His subjects, disgusted with his administration, rose in arms against him. Castile was afflicted with all the horrors of anarchy and civil war. Isabella retired for shelter to a monastery at Avila. The confederated nobles, who were in arms against the king, offered her the crown of Castile, which she had the prudence and magnanimity to refuse. This led to a negotiation with the king, and the civil war was closed by a treaty between the parties, in which it was stipulated that Isabella should be immediately recognized heir to the crown of Castile and Leon. Her brother Alfonso had recently died, and Joanna, the daughter of Henry, was believed by the people to be a supposititious offspring. Isabella's prospects of a throne having now assumed a certain character, drew the attention of neighboring princes, who contended with each other for the honor of her hand. She gave the preference to Ferdinand of Arragon, and they were married in 1469. On the death of Henry, in 1474, they were conjointly declared king and queen of Castile. A party, however, existed in favor of Joanna, and Alfonso IV., King of Portugal, entered Castile at the head of an army, publicly espoused

her, and assumed the regal title. His defeat at the battle of Toro, in 1475, was fatal to his pretensions, and, by a peace concluded in 1479, the right of Isabella and her husband was fully acknowledged. In that year Ferdinand succeeded to the crown of Arragon; and from that time the kingdoms of Castile and Arragon were inseparably united, comprising the whole of Spain not possessed by the Moors.

Isabella, who was high-spirited and jealous of her authority, governed Castile as the real sovereign, and her husband had the policy to concur, with apparent cordiality, in her measures. In 1481, hostilities were commenced against the Moors of Grenada; and, after a war of ten years, that kingdom was subdued by the arms of Ferdinand and Isabella. By this event the whole of Spain was restored to the Christian dominion; and in honor of an achievement so auspicious, the two sovereigns received the distinguishing title of "the Catholic." In this war Isabella engaged with all the ardor of religious zeal; and though Ferdinand joined in her plans with perfect harmony, yet he seems to have acted in a secondary capacity. Soon after this, the Jews were expelled from Spain—an act of bigotry and injustice certainly countenanced by Isabella, but owing chiefly to the fanatic religious zeal of the inquisitor-general, Torquemada, her confessor, who, while the king and queen were deliberating on the acceptance of an offer of thirty thousand ducats made by the Jews to avert the threatened edict of expulsion, suddenly burst into their presence, and, drawing forth a crucifix from beneath his mantle, held it up, exclaiming, "Judas Iscariot sold his Master for thirty pieces of silver. Your highnesses would sell him anew for thirty thousand. Here he is; take him, and barter him away." So saying, he threw the crucifix on the table, and left the apartment. This bold stroke of priestly impudence was completely successful. The sovereigns were overawed, and the edict was signed.

A deed more glorious to the memory of Isabella was the generous patronage she bestowed upon Columbus, and which was the sole means that enabled that heroic adventurer to accomplish his great undertaking of the discovery of the western world. After he had failed in all his attempts in other quarters, he at length found a friend in the queen, who, rejecting the advice of her narrow-minded and timid counsellors, exclaimed, "I will assume the undertaking for my own crown of Castile, and am ready to pawn my jewels to defray the expenses of it, if the funds in the treasury shall be found inadequate." Under her auspices Columbus achieved his great discovery; and Isabella may be called the mother of the western world. She continued a constant friend and protector of Columbus during her life; and her death proved an overwhelming disaster to him.

During the war against the Moors, Isabella shared in most of the campaigns, animating her husband and generals by her courage and undaunted perseverance; providing for the support of the armies by her forethought and economy; comforting them under their reverses by her sweet and gracious speeches, and pious confidence in Heaven; and by her active humanity and her benevolent sympathy, extended to friend and foe, softening, as far as possible, the miseries of war. She was the first who appointed regular surgeons to attend the movements of the army, and be at hand on the field of battle. These surgeons were paid out of her own revenues; and she also provided six spacious tents, furnished with beds and all things requisite for the sick and wounded, which were called the "Queen's Hospital."



Thus to the compassionate heart of a woman, directed by energy and judgment, the civilized world was first indebted for an expedient which has since saved so many lives, and accomplished so much towards alleviating the frightful evils of war.

Isabella's confessor, the Dominican Torquemada, had, from the beginning, earnestly labored to infuse into her young mind, to which his situation gave him such ready access, the same spirit of fanaticism that glowed in his own. Fortunately, this was in a great degree counteracted by her sound understanding and natural kindness of heart. But he is said to have extorted a promise that, "should she ever come to the throne, she would devote herself to the extirpation of heresy, for the glory of God, and the extension of the Catholic faith." The fulfillment of this promise being afterwards insisted on, led to the establishment of the Inquisition in her dominions, the darkest spot that exists upon her character. It was not till she had endured the repeated importunities of the clergy, particularly of those revered persons in whom she most confided, that she consented to this measure.

It was under the auspices of Isabella that Cardinal Ximenes introduced his famous reforms into the religious orders of Spain, and began the work of correcting the horrible abuses which had crept into the government of the convents. This attempt was strongly resisted, and occasioned a general outcry of the clergy. The general of the Franciscans waited on the queen, and remonstrated in high terms against this interference with the privileges of his order; at the same time reflecting severely on Cardinal Ximenes, and his influence over her mind. Isabella listened to this turbulent friar with some impatience; but, little accustomed to be dictated to in this style, she at length arose from her seat, and desired him to remember who he was, and to whom he spoke. "Madam," replied the monk, undauntedly, "I remember that I am but ashes and dust, and that I speak to Queen Isabella, who is but dust and ashes, like myself." She immediately turned from him with a look of cool disdain. The next day he was ordered to quit the kingdom; and Ximenes, supported by the royal power, pursued his system of reformation.

Isabella was a patron of literature. The first printing-press set up in Spain was established at Burgos, under her auspices, and all printed books, and foreign and classical works, were imported free of duty. Through her zeal and patronage, the University of Salamanca rose to that eminence which it assumed among the learned institutions of that period, and rivaled those of Pisa and Padua. She prepared the way for that golden age of Spanish literature which immediately succeeded her. Her own love of study is evinced by the fact, that, after she was firmly seated on the throne, she applied herself to the task of remedying the defects of her early education, by diligent application to books, amid all the cares of state. She mastered the Latin language in less than a year's study.

Notwithstanding that Isabella adored her husband, she would never suffer him to interfere with her authority as an independent sovereign, and she was as jealous of her prerogative as Elizabeth of England; except, indeed, where priestly intimidation was applied. Her extreme deference for the ecclesiastics around her was a misfortune for her people, but consistently with the best points in her character, it could not have been otherwise. She was humane, just, and reasonable in all matters not influ-

enced by the religious bigotry of the age. She declared the American Indians free, and ordered the instant return of several cargoes of them, which had been sent to Spain for slaves.

After a successful and glorious reign of thirty years, Isabella the Catholic died, on the twenty-sixth of November, 1504, in the fifty-fourth year of her age. Her last years were clouded with the deepest melancholy. The insanity and misfortunes of her daughter Joanna, and the domestic afflictions of her daughter Catherine of Arragon, lacerated her heart with sorrow. She pined away in her lonely grandeur, till the deep and long-protracted melancholy invaded her constitution and settled into a rapid and fatal decline.

The chief traits of Isabella's character may be gathered from the preceding narrative, to which we subjoin the parallel drawn between her and Elizabeth of England, by Mr. Prescott, whose History so ably and satisfactorily unfolds the events of her reign:

"It is in these more amiable qualities of her sex, that Isabella's superiority becomes most apparent over her illustrious namesake, Elizabeth of England, whose history presents some features parallel to her own. Both were disciplined in early life by the teachings of that stern nurse of wisdom, adversity. Both were made to experience the deepest humiliation at the hands of their nearest relative, who should have cherished and protected them. Both succeeded in establishing themselves on the throne, after the most precarious vicissitudes. Each conducted her kingdom, through a long and triumphant reign, to a height of glory which it never before reached. Both lived to see the vanity of all earthly grandeur, and to fall the victims of an inconsolable melancholy; and both left behind an illustrious name, unrivaled in the annals of their country.

"But with these few circumstances of their history, the resemblance ceases. Their characters afford scarcely a point of contact. Elizabeth, inheriting a large share of the bold and bluff King Harry's temperament, was haughty, arrogant, coarse, and irascible, while with these fiercer qualities she mingled deep dissimulation and strange irresolution. Isabella, on the other hand, tempered the dignity of royal station with the most bland and courteous manners. Once resolved, she was constant in her purposes; and her conduct in public and private life was characterized by candor and integrity. Both may be said to have shown that magnanimity which is implied by the accomplishment of great objects in the face of great obstacles. But Elizabeth was desperately selfish; she was incapable of forgiving, not merely a real injury, but the slightest affront to her vanity; and she was merciless in exacting retribution. Isabella, on the other hand, lived only for others; was ready at all times to sacrifice self to considerations of public duty; and, far from personal resentment, showed the greatest condescension and kindness to those who had most sensibly injured her; while her benevolent heart sought every means to mitigate the authorized severities of the law, even towards the guilty.

"Both possessed rare fortitude. Isabella, indeed, was placed in situations which demanded more frequent and higher displays of it than her rival; but no one will doubt a full measure of this quality in the daughter of Henry VIII. Elizabeth was better educated, and every way more highly accomplished, than Isabella. But the latter knew enough to maintain her station with dignity, and she encouraged learning by a munificent



patronage. The masculine powers and passions of Elizabeth seemed to divorce her, in a great measure, from the peculiar attributes of her sex; at least from those which constitute its peculiar charm; for she had abundance of foibles; a coquetry and a love of admiration, which age could not chill; a levity most careless, if not criminal; and a fondness for dress and tawdry magnificence of ornament which was ridiculous or disgusting, according to the different periods of life in which it was indulged. Isabella, on the other hand, distinguished through life for decorum of manners and purity beyond the breath of calumny, was content with the legitimate affection which she could inspire within the range of her domestic circle. Far from a frivolous affectation of ornament or dress, she was most simple in her own attire, and seemed to set no value on her jewels, but as they could serve the necessities of the state; when they could be no longer useful in this way, she gave them away to her friends.

"Both were uncommonly sagacious in the selection of their ministers, though Elizabeth was drawn into some errors, in this particular, by her levity, as was Isabella by her religious feeling. It was this, combined with her excessive humility, which led to the only grave errors in the administration of the latter. Her rival fell into no such errors; and she was a stranger to the amiable qualities which led to them. Her conduct was certainly not controlled by religious principle; and, though the bulwark of the Protestant faith, it might be difficult to say whether she were at heart most a Protestant or a Catholic. She viewed religion in its connection with the state,—in other words, with herself; and she took measures for enforcing conformity to her own views, not a whit less despotic, and scarcely less sanguinary, than those countenanced for conscience sake by her more bigoted rival.

"This feature of bigotry, which has thrown a shade over Isabella's otherwise beautiful character, might lead to a disparagement of her intellectual power, compared with that of the English queen. To estimate this aright, we must contemplate the results of their respective reigns. Elizabeth found all the materials of prosperity at hand, and availed herself of them most ably to build up a solid fabric of national grandeur. Isabella created these materials. She saw the faculties of her people locked up in a death-like lethargy, and she breathed into them the breath of life, for those great and heroic enterprises which terminated in such glorious consequences to the monarchy. It is when viewed from the depressed position of her early days, that the achievements of her reign seem scarcely less than miraculous. The masculine genius of the English queen stands out relieved beyond its natural dimensions by its separation from the softer qualities of her sex; while her rival, like some vast and symmetrical edifice, loses, in appearance, somewhat of its actual grandeur, from the perfect harmony of its proportions.

"The circumstances of their deaths, which were somewhat similar, displayed the great dissimilarity of their characters. Both pined amidst their royal state, a prey to incurable despondency, rather than any marked bodily distemper. In Elizabeth, it sprang from wounded vanity; a sullen conviction that she had outlived the admiration on which she had so long fed, and even the solace of friendship, and the attachment of her subjects. Nor did she seek consolation where alone it was to be found, in that sad hour. Isabella, on the other hand, sank under a too acute sensibility to

the sufferings of others. But amidst the gloom which gathered around her, she looked, with the eye of faith, to the brighter prospects which unfolded of the future. And, when she resigned her last breath, it was with the tears and universal lamentations of her people. It is in this undying, unabated attachment of the nation, indeed, that we see the most unequivocal testimony to the virtues of Isabella. Her own subjects extol her as 'the most brilliant exemplar of every virtue,' and mourn over the day of her death as 'the last of the prosperity and happiness of the country;' while those who had nearer access to her person are unbounded in their admiration of those amiable qualities whose full power is revealed only in the unrestrained intimacies of domestic life."

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## THE AMERICAN REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

**C**AUSES which had been for ages at work resulted in the war of the American Independence. It was but the carrying out of principles, which had cost the toil and treasure of many and many a nation, in their struggles against oppression—principles which had been sealed by the blood of many a holy martyr to liberty. The immediate causes of the appeal to arms by our patriot fathers of 1776, are soon detailed. England's king wanted money to build a splendid new palace, it is said; for when a young man, he had been laughed at as having the worst looking palace in all Europe. But the treasury was exhausted by "royal" wars, in which the nation had no proper interest; wars to carry out that favorite bullism, that "France is the natural enemy of England."

Our people had contributed their full share of blood and treasure to defend themselves against the French and Indians, on their frontier, who had been aroused against them by the foolish European politics of England, begotten of an encroaching and overbearing disposition. It was proposed to raise money, now the war was over, ostensibly to help pay its expenses, but really to be expended by the British Parliament, in schemes our people had little knowledge of, or interest in; expended too, after the usual lavish manner of the mother government, in pensioning off its aristocracy, gilding the costly bauble of royalty, and providing for exclusive interests. Had not our wise forefathers taken their stand, at once, we should now have been ground down by taxes, as our English brethren are, to pay the thousands of millions of British debt, rolled up chiefly by the obstinacy of the English government in standing directly in the way of the progress of the world, and attempting by her single arm, or rather purse, to stay the onward march of freedom!

The men of the revolution took the ground that they would pay no tax, the expending of the revenue from which they should have no voice in. They were not represented in the Parliament of England, and had no vote in the disbursement of the revenue raised. They therefore thought there should be no revenue raised from internal taxation in the colonies, except



what might be raised and spent by the colonial government, and thus accommodated, both in the mode of its levying and expenditure, to the wants of the colonies. On the other hand, the English thought that the interests of the mother country should in all cases take precedence of the interests of the colonies; that the colonists were getting quite too free in speaking their minds, quite too full of ideas of independence. Scarce an inhabitant of England but felt that "our" colonies were his personal subjects, that their inhabitants held a position subordinate to real Englishmen; and thus their setting up an interest and government of their own, seemed to him something like a personal insult. The upstart must be put down. The general English feeling at the outset, was, The Americans must be *humbled* and *subjugated*. Thus the passions of both nations were soon enlisted.

The claims as to taxation had been urged in various forms, and been reluctantly submitted to, evaded or resisted, as the circumstances allowed, till, in 1764-65, after the odious duties on sugar, molasses and some other articles had been declared perpetual, and the right to trial by jury tampered with, the Stamp Act was passed, as the entering wedge of a series of measures which were to reduce every man, woman, and child, of the colonies, to the tax-ridden condition of the people of the old world. The night after its passage, Franklin wrote, "The sun of liberty is set,—light up the candles of industry and frugality." "We shall light up torches of quite another sort," was the reply; and they were lighted up, both literally and metaphorically, from one end of the States to the other, till such a flame was kindled, as snapt like tow the thousand cords which bound us to England, her expensive royalty, her ambition, her destinies, and her oppressions.

The Stamp Act was repealed because it could not be enforced, but the tyrannous disposition still remained. In 1767, tea, glass, oil, and painters' colors, imported into America, were taxed; the authority of the New York Assembly was suspended, till it should consent to quarter troops; and naval officers were appointed custom-house officers, to enforce the trade and navigation acts. In 1765, a congress from nine states had met in New York, and measures, looking to the calling of another, were taken by the Massachusetts Legislature in 1768,—but the governor dissolved that body. The House of Burgesses in Virginia, sustaining the cause of liberty, was also dissolved. In fine, the whole country was in commotion; several outbreaks took place, and repeated collisions occurred between the colonial governors and the people. These agitations were not allayed by the repeal, in 1771, of the act laying duties, for it excepted *tea*, and thus asserted the hateful principle of taxation without representation.

When the tea came over, in some of the ports it was stowed in damp cellars and spoiled; in others, the pilots were not permitted to bring the ships to the wharf—nowhere was it allowed to be sold. In Boston, a party disguised as Indians, threw over three hundred and forty-two chests of it. For this spirited act, called the "Boston Tea Party," Parliament shut up the port of Boston, 1774; that is, all commercial intercourse with Boston was forbidden, and the landing or shipping of goods there, till the tea should be paid for. Other acts followed, forbidding town meetings in the state, abolishing jury trials in certain cases, and appointing counsellors by the crown. The cause of Boston was espoused by all the colonies, and the

necessities of her people supplied by contributions. The assembly, convened at Salem, nominated five delegates to a colonial congress. Everything was tending to centralization and unity of purpose throughout the colonies, and every act of the mother country but served to bind them more closely together, and to ripen the seeds of revolution.

In 1774, a colonial congress met at Philadelphia; twelve colonies were represented. "For solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conclusion, no body of men could stand in preference to this congress." Such was the judgment of a distinguished Englishman, Lord Chatham; such has been the verdict of posterity. They approved of the conduct of Massachusetts, and took measures for her relief; drew up a declaration or bill of rights; recommended non-importation associations, and encouragement of domestic arts; an address to the people of Great Britain, a memorial to the inhabitants of British America, and a loyal address to the king. They penned an encouraging memorial to their constituents, passed resolves against the slave-trade, and resolves to continue the colonial union till their rights were obtained. Their petition to the king was a masterpiece of feeling and force.

War approaches; magazines of gunpowder and other military stores are seized at Charlestown and at Cambridge; a provisional congress, with Hancock for president, meets at Salem, and adjourns to Concord; minute men are appointed, bound to be ready to march in "defence of the province," that is, of liberty, at a moment's warning; three general officers, to command them and the military, are elected; a committee of supplies is chosen; and a committee of safety to sit during the recess. In November, they again meet, appoint one-fourth of the militia to act as minute men; elect two more general officers, and send to inform New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, of what they are doing, and request their co-operation in raising an army of twenty thousand men. Other colonies followed their example in part.

Insidious compromises were proposed, but the difference of opinion between England and the colonies was too great to be settled except by war—and both nations prepared for the combat. On April 18th, 1775, the first blood of the revolution was shed at Lexington. Here a few men, whose names will ever be glorious in the annals of their country, were drawn up, on the common, to oppose a body of British soldiers sent from Boston, to destroy military stores at Concord. Concentrating British arrogance in one sentence, the first cry of their commander, as he advanced, was, "Disperse you rebels! throw down your arms and disperse!" followed up by a fire of bullets, which killed eight men. Liberty or death was now the choice of every man who bore a heart. Fathers left their children, mothers sent their sons, husbands parted from wives—all bade adieu to what was dearest to them in existence, to peril life in the holy cause. They buckled on their armor, not with a reckless love of excitement, but with a deep-felt, pious, earnest, determination to die,—a serious humor, most fatal to tyranny.

Twenty thousand men were soon collected around Boston, and General Gage was closely besieged, and became straitened for provisions. Ticonderoga and Crown Point were seized. "By whose authority?" said La Place, commander of the former. "God and the Continental Congress!" shouted Ethan Allen, receiving the sword of his prisoner. Skenesborough



what might be raised and spent by the colonial government, and thus accommodated, both in the mode of its levying and expenditure, to the wants of the colonies. On the other hand, the English thought that the interests of the mother country should in all cases take precedence of the interests of the colonies; that the colonists were getting quite too free in speaking their minds, quite too full of ideas of independence. Scarce an inhabitant of England but felt that "our" colonies were his personal subjects, that their inhabitants held a position subordinate to real Englishmen; and thus their setting up an interest and government of their own, seemed to him something like a personal insult. The upstart must be put down. The general English feeling at the outset, was, The Americans must be *humbled* and *subjugated*. Thus the passions of both nations were soon enlisted.

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Pass was also seized, and a sloop-of-war at St. John's. Thus, without bloodshed, were the keys of Canada taken, and the command of the lakes secured.

The battle of Bunker Hill was fought on the 17th of June, 1776. On the 15th, Washington was appointed commander-in-chief, by the unanimous vote of Congress; he joined the army soon after the battle, and introduced discipline, subordination and order. Meanwhile congress published a dignified and temperate manifesto.

Two expeditions were sent against Canada; one led by Arnold, with incredible hardships, up the Kennebec, through the pathless wilds of Maine; the other along the old route, by the way of Lake Champlain. Montgomery now took St. John's and Montreal, and marched after Gov. Carleton to Quebec. Joining Arnold their force was but 1,000, with which they sat down to besiege the Gibraltar of America, with its garrison of 1,500. Rather than retire, they came to the desperate resolution to storm the city. Montgomery was killed, Arnold wounded; and 400 Americans were made prisoners, and Arnold, with the rest of his troops, blockaded the place.

The British, being masters of the sea-coast, burned every hostile port. This but served to exasperate, and the Americans retaliated by arming hundreds of bold and shrewd privateers, that plundered the British commerce on every sea, and even in the very ports of the haughty island itself. In Virginia, the militia defeated the royalists. On the meeting of Parliament, acts were passed with the design of annihilating every vestige of American navigation and commerce. Vessels taken were to be the property of the captors, and their crews, their slaves; 17,000 Hessians were hired of their prince, and 25,000 English mercenaries were also ordered over. The petition of congress was rejected by the king, and not even heard by the Parliament. These acts shut the door of reconciliation.

Washington by occupying Dorchester Heights, which he effected one stormy night, soon made Boston too hot for the enemy, who, on the 17th March, 1776, evacuated it. But the Americans were driven out of Canada, and lost all they had gained there.

At Fort Moultrie, the British, in June, 1776, were nobly repulsed from Charleston; on the fourth of July, congress proclaimed its Declaration of Independence.

Lord Howe with Admiral Howe was now near New York, with thirty-five thousand of the best troops of Europe, and hoped to persuade the Americans to recede, and return to their loyalty; but his proclamations produced no effect. The Americans concentrated their troops here; a disastrous battle was fought. The sight of his slaughtered troops and a knowledge of the discouragement likely to ensue, extorted a groan from even Washington's manly breast; but his prudence did not forsake him, and he retired to Haerlem Heights, leaving the city of New York to the enemy.

Although our people were dispirited by the defeat, yet were there many true and firm hearts among them, that could reëcho the dying words of Capt. Hale, executed about this time, as a spy, by Howe; "I lament that I have but one life to lay down for my country." However dark their prospects, a people animated by such feelings were unconquerable. Though many of the soldiers, as well as citizens, deserted their country in this hour of trial, yet many also stood by her through all. Washington adopted the Fabian policy of delay, striking here and there where he felt sure of

his blow, and keeping the enemy in uncertainty and unable to undertake any great enterprise. The skirmish at White Plains took place Oct. 28; Fort Washington surrendered Nov. 16; Fort Lee was evacuated Nov. 18; Washington retreated across the Delaware Nov. 28. These were the times which showed the men of '76.

Washington's little army was "unfed amidst fatigue; unshod, while their bleeding feet were forced rapidly over frozen ground, exposed to the keen December air, almost without clothes or tents." Being joined by Lee's, Mifflin's, Gates', and Mercer's forces, Washington found himself at the head of about seven thousand effective men; but the term of service of many of them was just about to expire, and he must strike some effective blow. The battles of Trenton, Dec. 26-27, 1776, and of Princeton, Jan. 3, 1777, show how well he used the opportunity. The "great news from the Jerseys" electrified the country with sudden hope, and put a new aspect on our affairs. Articles of confederation were adopted Nov. 15, 1777. Never were men more wise and devoted than those of Congress, but they were without means, and had only power to recommend; they authorized a loan, and sent to France for aid; they conferred vast powers on Washington, dangerous with any other man.

The campaign of 1777 was distinguished by the brutality of the tories and English, who, as was said in Europe, "had revived in America the fury of the Goths, and the barbarity of the northern hordes." Franklin's wisdom and wit had enlisted France in our cause. Said Lafayette, "If your country is in extremity, now is my time to join you," and his coming diffused joy and hope.

The two objects of the British now were to take Philadelphia, and to cut off New England from the rest of the country. The well appointed army of Burgoyne advanced victoriously from the north, and encamped at Saratoga. Our victory at Bennington had begun to turn the tide; "Beat them now, or Molly Stark's a widow!" became the watchword. The battle of Stillwater, Sept. 19, and the fierce victory of Oct. 7, were but the prelude to the catastrophe of the whole northern British army, which, hemmed in on every side, capitulated to Gates, on the 17th. But at the battle of Brandywine, Sept. 11th, after terrible carnage, the Americans were worsted; and on the 26th, the enemy took Philadelphia, then the capital. At Germantown, Washington was defeated, Oct. 7th. The enemy wintered in comfort at Philadelphia; Washington's army were in huts at Valley Forge, where were renewed the sufferings of the previous winter. Without even straw, these patriots lay on the bare ground; nakedness, hunger, and cold soon filled the hospitals with accumulated and irremediable misery. No monument is yet erected to those who *thus* died for their country!

We can only give a catalogue of the events of the campaigns of 1778, 1779, and 1780. In that of 1778, we may mention, as among the most important events, the intrigues against Washington; the success of American privateers; the treaty with France, Feb. 6; the intrigues of the British commissioners; evacuation of Philadelphia, June 18; battle of Monmouth, 28; arrival of a French fleet; the siege of Newport; the massacre of Wyoming Valley; Savannah taken, Dec. 29.

The British plan in the campaign of 1779, was to subjugate the whole south, beginning with Georgia, which was soon overrun. Of the events of this year the most noticeable are, the horrible conduct of the tories; Ameri



can defeat, under Ashe, March 3; taking of Stony point, by Wayne, a brilliant exploit, July 15; punishment of the savages, at Newtown, by Sullivan, Aug. 29; French and Americans repulsed from Savannah, Sept. 24 to Oct. 18; Paul Jones' naval victory, Sept. 27.

The campaign of 1780 is noted for the war in the south; the surrender of General Lincoln at Charleston, May 12; taking of fort Ninety-six, and Buford's force at Wacsaw, by the British, who became masters of South Carolina; the depreciation of the currency sanctioned by Congress; heroism of the South Carolina women; arrival of Lafayette; also of a French squadron; the exploits of the partisan leaders, Sumpter and Marion; De Kalb and Gates lose the bloody battle of Camden, Aug. 16, leaving the British triumphant in the south; Sumpter's men are surprised and defeated at Fishing Creek, Aug. 18, but Marion keeps the field, sheltering himself in the mountain fastnesses. The miserable treason of Arnold occurred in September, but he was frustrated in his endeavor to deliver up the north to the enemy, though his conduct at this time and afterwards, as a destroying ravager, rendered the country's cause more gloomy. Col. Furguson's defeat on King's Mountain, Oct. 7, cheered the patriots somewhat, and drove Cornwallis back into South Carolina. His hour was approaching.

Gates having been unsuccessful in the south, as well as Lincoln, he was superseded by Greene. The year 1781 began without funds in Congress to pay an army, and a victorious enemy, constantly receiving reinforcements, in the heart of the country. Jan. 1, the Pennsylvania line revolted, from sheer want, but were quieted. In this dilemma, a national bank was founded, and Robert Morris, the Washington of finance, came forward as the Saviour of his country. Franklin, too, was able to borrow for his country, of Holland, under the endorsement of France, and received from Louis XVI. a gift of six million livres. These resources were carefully expended; public confidence revived; order and economy ruled in the place of confusion and waste. The war at the south went on with vigor; on Jan. 17, took place the battle of the Cowpens, in which Morgan defeated the notorious Tarleton, taking five hundred prisoners; Cornwallis chases the victor towards the Catawba, which the latter crosses, and is safe; but he soon retreats, with Cornwallis in full pursuit, towards the Yadkin, the rising of whose waters after he had crossed again puts a barrier between him and his pursuer. March 15, happened the battle of Guilford Court House, but Greene was defeated, though able to pursue his conqueror.

But the war was drawing to a close. Sumpter and Marion annoy the British; but the Americans are surprised and defeated at Hobkirk's Hill; Rawdon, however, evacuates Camden; the British forts Watson, Georgetown, and Motte are taken, as well as Augusta; and Ninety-six is abandoned by the enemy. On Sept. 8 occurred the battle of Eutaw Springs, one of the most bloody and valiant of the war;—Greene was victorious, and the enemy retired to Charleston. By a series of manœuvres, Cornwallis was at last hemmed in at Yorktown. Washington, under a feint of attacking New York, had prevented Clinton from sending Cornwallis reinforcements, and himself marched with his French reinforcements from King's Bridge, near New York, directly towards Yorktown. The French fleet arrived off the Chesapeake, blocking up escape in that direction. Lafayette was already at Williamsburg, where the northern forces joined him on the 14th of September. In vain Cornwallis wrote to Clinton for

relief. Oct. 6, the American army of sixteen thousand, seven thousand of whom were French, commenced their works; Oct. 14, two redoubts were carried; Oct. 16, the British sally out, but are driven back; Cornwallis attempts to escape, but a storm prevents him; Oct. 17, Cornwallis seeing his army wasting away, and no hope of escape, before noon sends a flag to treat of surrender. On the 19th, he marches out, surrendering an army of nine thousand men, sixty pieces of cannon, two frigates, and twenty transports.

The English were well tired of the war, seeing that, after all the expenses of property and life, nothing was left them, at the end of seven years, but New York, Charleston, and Savannah, and these could only be kept by strong fleets and garrisons. They were convinced, at last, that the Americans could not be conquered. In 1782, they appeared willing to give up the contest; in January, 1783, preliminary articles were signed; but it was not till Sept. 3, that the treaty was finally completed, acknowledging the Independence of the United States. Thus ended the War of the Revolution.

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## WAR OF 1812 WITH ENGLAND.

**I**N 1807, Great Britain and France being at war with each other, the dispute drew to one side or the other most of the European powers; and though the government of the United States was determined to keep at peace with all the world, if possible, there were many difficulties in the way of maintaining a strict neutrality. Great Britain claimed the right of taking her own native-born subjects where she could find them. Relying upon the strength of her navy, many American vessels were searched in this way, and British sailors, naturalized as Americans, and many native born Americans, were from time to time seized and impressed into the British service. As if to continue and aggravate this grievance, Great Britain refused to listen to any application for redress. Another difficulty was caused by an order in council issued in May, 1806, by which the English cabinet declared all the ports and rivers from Elbe, in Germany, to Brest, in France, in a state of blockade; consequently, American vessels trading to any of these ports were liable to be seized and condemned. Still later, in 1807, another order in council was issued, forbidding all the coasting trade with France on penalty of capture and condemnation.

Such was the state of things in 1807, when the attack on the Chesapeake occurred; the controversy which followed was the prelude to that state of feeling which led to the war of 1812. Five men deserted from the British frigate *Melampus*, which was lying in Hampton Roads, Norfolk, and three of them joined the American frigate *Chesapeake*, then preparing for sea. Though subsequently proved that they were American citizens, the British consul applied for their delivery to the English captain. They were not given up, and in June the *Chesapeake* started on her voyage to



the Mediterranean. She was intercepted at Hampton Roads, by a British fleet, when a colloquy ensued, and the American commander refusing to allow a search to be made, and refusing to give up any of his crew, the ship was fired upon, and three of her men killed and eighteen wounded. Being unprepared for action, she could make no resistance, and finally surrendered. A search was made by the British captain, the three men, together with another claimed as a British subject, were taken on board the *Melampus*. The *Chesapeake*, being much injured, returned to Norfolk.

This affair led to much ill feeling on the part of the Americans, and to discussion and diplomacy on the part of the two cabinets; negotiations were several times attempted, but always failed of success. Great Britain and France still continued at war, and by their orders and decrees and impressments and seizures were breaking in upon all former treaties, especially those with the United States. The prospect that the latter government would be able to keep out of difficulty was growing less and less every day; decrees, prohibitions, and proclamations followed each other in quick succession. In May, 1811, an unprovoked attack was made upon the U. States frigate *President*, by the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, in which the latter was signally worsted. Some months later, the attack on the *Chesapeake* was acknowledged by Mr. Foster, the British envoy, to be unauthorized, and negotiation followed, by which the affair was adjusted to the satisfaction of both parties. This, however, did not remove the difficulties with Great Britain. That government still insisted on the right of impressment, as it was called; the blockade of her enemies' ports was very injurious to the interests of the U. States, and her orders in council had not been annulled. On the 3d of April, 1812, the president, Mr. Madison, with the recommendation of congress, laid an embargo on all vessels within the jurisdiction of the United States. This was the prelude to war, which was declared on the 18th of June.

The country was poorly prepared for war, and the news was received with murmurings in some quarters, and with open violence in others. Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, refused to furnish men from the militia of their states except for the defence of their seaboard. The few troops already in service, and those who enlisted, immediately were sent to the north-west, and placed under Gen. Hull. A most disgraceful surrender soon followed, by which Detroit, the neighboring forts and garrisons, together with the army, fell into the hands of the British. This dispiriting circumstance, at the outset of the war, cast a gloom over the whole country. Gen. Hull was tried for treason, cowardice and unofficerlike conduct; was convicted on the last two charges, and sentenced to death, but on account of his age was pardoned by the president.

The war, which began so unhappily on the land, was brilliantly and successfully prosecuted at sea. The U. States possessed but seventeen vessels of war on the open seas, while the naval power of Great Britain, consisted of from eight hundred to one thousand ships; yet the overwhelming force of the so-called mistress of the ocean was effectually humbled by a power whose naval equipments she could not help despising for their seeming inefficiency. The British sloop of war *Alert* was taken by the *Essex*, Captain Porter, after an action of only eight minutes. The *Guerriere*, thirty-eight guns, Captain Dacres, was captured and sunk by the *Constitution*, after an action of two hours. The *Constitution* was not at all

injured, and was ready for another action the very next day. These brilliant events at sea atoned in some measure for the disgraceful nature of the land service, and served to encourage the navy in its contest with the greatest naval power in the world. Where least was expected, the most heroic bravery and the most unprecedented skill were manifested. On the 18th of October, the American sloop *Wasp*, eighteen guns, fell in with the British sloop *Frolic*, of about the same force, and captured her after an obstinate action of an hour and a half. The *Wasp* had ten men killed and wounded, while the loss of the *Frolic* amounted to nearly a hundred. Both ships were soon after attacked by a British seventy-four, and as they were in no situation to escape or make a defence, were captured and taken to Bermuda. One week later, the United States forty-four, fell in with, encountered and captured the British frigate *Macedonian*, rated at thirty-eight guns, but in reality carrying forty-nine. Before the year closed, an engagement ensued between the *Constitution*, Commander Bainbridge, and the British frigate *Java*, forty-nine, off the coast of Brazil. The action was very severe, the *Java* losing two hundred men, in killed and wounded, and the *Constitution* about thirty. The *Java* surrendered, and being nearly reduced to a hulk, was burned by the Americans.

An attack on Queenstown, in Canada, was planned and carried into execution, at the close of 1812. Owing to bad management, and to the militia refusing to follow the regular troops, as they had promised to do, the Americans, after having got a foothold in the country, and having taken the battery on the heights of Queenstown, were obliged to surrender, and retreat. Nothing was accomplished, although circumstances were favorable in the highest degree to the Americans. Early in Jan. 1813, Frenchtown, a place twenty-six miles from Detroit, was attacked by a large force of British and Indians; it was successfully defended for a time by Gen. Winchester, but was finally taken, together with five hundred prisoners. A most frightful massacre followed; the unhappy victims being stripped, plundered, tomahawked or roasted at the stake. But few lived to be exchanged. The following spring, the town of York, on Lake Ontario, the great depository of the British military stores, was attacked by the Americans, under Gen. Pike: they took the town and fortifications, the barracks and stores, and seven hundred and fifty prisoners. In May, Fort George, another strong British post, in the vicinity of York, was taken after a sharp and bloody conflict, together with over six hundred prisoners. In the same month, Fort Meigs, the head-quarters of the north-western army, under Gen. Harrison, was unsuccessfully besieged by the British, under Gen. Proctor.

During the first six months of 1813, the Americans were not so successful at sea as in the year preceding. The *Chesapeake*, Captain Lawrence, was captured by the *Shannon* in June, and the *Argus* by the *Pelican*, in July. In September, however, the tide began to turn, and in an action between the American vessel *Enterprise* and the British brig *Boxer*, the Americans were completely victorious. In the same month an action took place on Lake Erie, between the American and British fleets there. After four hours' hard fighting the British surrendered their whole fleet, consisting of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns. At the battle of the Moravian towns, which soon followed, the Americans, under Generals Harrison and Shelby, utterly routed the combined British and Indian army,



under Gen. Proctor. Tecumseh, the celebrated Indian chief, was killed in this battle. This action ended the war in the north-west.

The spring of 1814 opened with the loss of the U. States frigate *Essex*, in the Bay of Valparaiso, Chili. Later in the spring the British brig *Epervier* was taken by the United States sloop of war *Peacock*. The *Wasp*, already mentioned, made two captures of British ships this year, the sloops of war *Reindeer* and *Avon*. The war upon the land languished during the first half of the year 1814, the British having need of all their troops at home in combating Napoleon. But no sooner had he fallen, than fourteen thousand of the troops which had fought under Wellington were let loose upon the Canadian frontier. The battle of Chippewa ensued, in which the Americans obtained a bloody and dearly bought victory. Another portion of the British force, which the close of the French war enabled England to pour upon this country, entered the Potomac river in a squadron of fifty or sixty sail, and proceeded towards Washington. This city they captured; they burnt the capitol, the president's house, the public offices, the arsenal and the navy yard. Several private buildings were also destroyed. From Washington the British went as rapidly as possible to Baltimore. On the way, they met with such opposition that they gave up the enterprise, and retreated to their ships. The war on Lake Champlain, which comes next in the order of time, was signally fortunate for the Americans. Both on the water, and in the engagements of the land forces, they were in the highest degree successful, though fighting against a force many times greater than their own.

It is at this period that the commissioners, who had been appointed by both governments to lay the basis of negotiation for peace, met at Ghent, in Holland. A treaty of peace was signed on the 24th Dec., 1814. Before it was known in the United States, a terrific battle took place at New Orleans, between the British, under Packenham and Gibbs, and the Americans, under General Jackson. This battle is one of the most extraordinary on record. The British troops were picked men, were thoroughly disciplined troops, and amounted to about 12,000. The Americans were mostly raw militia, and hardly numbered 6,000. Yet the British were defeated with the most dreadful slaughter, losing their two generals in the first onset. Their loss amounted to seven hundred killed, and fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred taken prisoners. The Americans had but seven men killed and six wounded. The treaty signed at Ghent was ratified at Washington on the 17th of February, and peace was hailed with joy throughout the United States.

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## THE WAR WITH MEXICO.

**S**PAIN recognized the independence of Mexico in 1820. In 1824, the states of Mexico united in a federal Government, which centralized the powers of the states at the capital, leaving the independent states to become insignificant and dependent provinces. Among these states was Texas; not desiring to sink into this subordinate position, the

energetic people of this state, though few, resolved to declare themselves independent of Mexico and of every other state.

For many years, Mexico endeavored to reduce the Texians to obedience, but in 1836 her independence was recognized by the United States. This gave umbrage to Mexico as she had not yet surrendered her claims, and this was heightened to animosity, when, in 1845, Texas was annexed to our Union, as a sister state.

Previously to this cause of complaint on the part of Mexico, the United States, on her part, had great reason for dissatisfaction with Mexico. During nearly twenty years injuries had been committed at sundry times by Mexicans upon the persons and property of citizens of the United States, and the settlement of these had been from time to time deferred, in consequence of the repeated changes which took place in the Mexican government. The two governments had even appointed commissioners to settle our claims. Some were determined, but even these remained unpaid. In 1845, the Mexicans refused to receive our ambassador.

In this state of feeling, on both sides, the government of the United States had deemed it important to have a force upon the frontier, especially as it had agreed to take upon itself the settlement of the western boundary of Texas, as claimed against Mexico. This force advanced to the extreme edge of the disputed boundary; a collision took place in 1846; blood was shed and war was begun.

At Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, Gen. Taylor and his brave soldiers, though surrounded by fearful odds, beat off and conquered the enemy. The west side of the Rio Grande was soon in the power of our victorious troops. Col. Doniphan had taken Santa Fe, and after a little more fighting, New Mexico was also subdued.

Gen. Taylor pushed on towards Mexico, took Camargo, Cerralvo, and Monterey, where his men behaved with the utmost intrepidity. Having defeated and dispersed the Mexican army, he pushed on beyond Monterey to Saltillo, while another army under Santa Anna himself was advancing towards him. At this critical moment, many of his regular troops were ordered away from Gen. Taylor, to commence another line of operations towards Mexico, from Vera Cruz, under Gen. Scott.

Gen. Taylor, though weakened and annoyed, was still undismayed; he took an advanced position at Buena Vista. The veterans of Europe now looked on with admiration at the unerring strategy of this wonderful advance, with raw recruits and volunteers, triumphing in battle after battle in the face of every odds and every disadvantage, gaining victories, when, by all the rules, they should have been defeats! But what a blaze of glory surrounded our little army when the result of the well-fought field of Buena Vista, against quintuple odds, was known to the applauding world!

The best portion of the Mexican army was utterly routed and dispersed at Buena Vista. At Vera Cruz, the town itself was taken, and after a short bombardment, the fort of St. Juan de Ulloa, impregnable, as it seemed, surrendered. After much skirmishing, gaining brilliant victories at Cerro Gordo and Puebla, our little army of heroes appeared before the gates of Mexico. The sanguinary battles of Cherubusco, Molino Del Rey, and the streets of Mexico, in which so many brave men fell on both sides, made us masters of the renowned capital of the Montezumas, romantic Mexico itself. Only a handful of Americans now held a city and suburbs





BOMBARDMENT OF VERA CRUZ.



ENTRANCE INTO THE GRAND PLAZA, MEXICO.



of a quarter of million of people, and maintained a greater degree of order and quiet than had reigned there for many years!

Having taken all the ports along the Gulf of Mexico, and on the Pacific, and after some fighting, having taken possession of California, holding Vera Cruz and its castle, the capital and its roads, our government was able to dictate a peace. It used its power with moderation; it agreed with Mexico to take upon itself the discharging of all claims of its own citizens against the Mexican republic, and to pay fifteen millions of dollars for a boundary line, beginning at the mouth of the Rio Grande, then up that stream to the southern boundary of New Mexico, then across to the Gila, and down to its mouth, with free navigation to the Gulf of California, and thence across to the Pacific.

The war commenced by the fighting near Matamoras, in the spring of 1846, and was thus finished by a treaty of peace, amity, and commerce, May 30, 1848.

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## FERNANDO CORTEZ.

**F**ERNANDO CORTEZ, the conqueror of Mexico, was born in Estremadura, Spain, in 1485. He emigrated to the West Indies in 1504, where, some years after, the governor of Cuba gave him the command of a fleet, in which he sailed on a voyage of discovery. He quitted the port of San Jago in November, 1518, with ten vessels, six hundred Spaniards, eighteen horses, and some field-pieces. He landed at Tobasco, in Mexico, where he forced the natives to acknowledge the supremacy of the King of Spain. He next proceeded to that part of Mexico where Vera Cruz now stands. He here received envoys from Montezuma, the sovereign of the country, who brought him many rich presents, and by which the curiosity and avarice of the invaders were highly stimulated. Cortez determined, spite of the weakness of his little army, to advance into the interior of the country. At this time, Mexico was the most powerful monarchy in the western world, and contained a population of about eight millions. It had made great advances in civilization, and the people had built fine cities and splendid temples and palaces.

As Cortez advanced, striking terror into the Mexican people by the exhibition of his firearms and horses, his little band received continual additions from various bodies of disaffected Indians, who encouraged him in his hopes of conquering the country. After many pitched battles, in all of which the Mexicans were defeated, Cortez arrived at the city of Mexico, where the terror-stricken Montezuma received him as his master; he was even supposed by the inhabitants to be a god, and a child of the sun! He destroyed the idols, and placed in their stead images of the Virgin Mary. He was continually endeavoring to strengthen himself by forming alliances with those caciques, who were hostile to Montezuma. His success

and victories were such, that the jealousy of Velasquez, Governor of Cuba, was excited, and he sent an army against him. Cortez gained over these troops, and incorporated them into his own army. Thus reinforced, he again made war upon the Mexicans. Montezuma, having been dethroned by his subjects, was succeeded by his nephew, Gautimozin, who, with all his court and retainers, fell into Cortez' hands three months after.

The court of Madrid now became jealous of Cortez in its turn, and sent commissioners to inspect and control his measures. Upon this Cortez returned to Spain, where he was received with much distinction. He afterwards returned to Mexico with an increase of titles, but a diminution of power. A viceroy controlled the government, while the military command only was entrusted to Cortez. His life became embittered from this period, and though in 1536 he discovered the peninsula of California, he returned to Spain, where he was received with indifference and neglect. He passed the remainder of his days in solitude, and died near Seville, in 1554, leaving behind him a character eminent for bravery and ability, but infamous for perfidy and cruelty.

## MRS. WASHINGTON.

**M**ARTHA DANDRIDGE was born in the county of New Kent, Virginia, in May, 1732. Her education was entirely of a domestic character, there being no schools in the region where she dwelt. As she grew up, she was distinguished for personal beauty, pleasing manners, and general amiability of demeanor. She frequently appeared at the court of Williamsburg, then held by the royal governors of Virginia, and became a general favorite.

At the age of seventeen, she was married to Daniel Park Custis, of her native county, and the new-married couple were settled at the White House, on the banks of the Pamunkey river. Mr. Custis devoted himself to agricultural pursuits, and became an eminently successful planter. They had four children, two of whom died at an early period. Martha arrived at womanhood, and died at Mount Vernon, in 1770, and John perished at the age of twenty-seven, while in the service of his country, at the siege of Yorktown, in 1781. Mr. Custis died at about middle age, leaving his widow still young, yet possessed of an ample fortune. Besides extensive landed estates, she had £30,000 sterling in money.

Mrs. Custis was the sole executor of her husband's will, and she appears to have been well qualified to discharge the duties which devolved upon her. She conducted her affairs with surprising ability, and the concerns of her extensive fortune seemed to thrive under her management. In 1758, Colonel Washington, then twenty-six years of age, became accidentally acquainted with the fair widow, and, after a brief courtship, they were married. This occurred in 1759. Soon after, they removed to Mount Vernon, which henceforward became their permanent residence.

Mrs. Washington had no children by this second marriage. Martha



and John Custis were, however, fully adopted into the affections of her present husband. In discharging her various domestic duties, and rearing her children, time flowed smoothly on for almost twenty years. In 1775, Washington being appointed commander-in-chief of the American army, proceeded to Cambridge, and did not return to Mount Vernon till after the peace of 1783, except in a single instance. In December, she proceeded to Cambridge, and joined her husband. Here she remained till spring, having witnessed the siege and evacuation of Boston. She then returned to Virginia.

During the war, it was the custom for the general to despatch an aid-de-camp to Mount Vernon, at the close of each campaign, to escort his wife to head-quarters. The arrival of Lady Washington, as she was now called, at the camp, was an event always anticipated with pleasure, and was the signal for the ladies of the general officers to join their husbands. The appearance of the aid-de-camp, escorting the plain family chariot, with the neat postilions, in scarlet and white liveries, was deemed an epoch in the army, and served to diffuse a cheering influence even amid the gloom which hung over our destinies, at Valley Forge, Morristown, and West Point. She always remained at head-quarters till the opening of the campaign, and she often remarked, in after life, that it had been her fortune to hear the first cannon at the opening, and the last at the closing, of the several campaigns of the war.

During the whole period of the revolutionary struggle, she preserved her equanimity, together with a degree of cheerfulness which inspired all around her with the brightest hopes of final success. The glorious results of the campaign of 1781 were, however, associated with an event most afflictive to her. John Custis, now her only child, had accompanied Washington to the siege of Boston, and had witnessed the most important events of the contest. At Yorktown, he was one of the aids of Washington, and lived to see the surrender of the British army on the 19th of October; but he died soon after of camp fever, which was then raging to a frightful extent within the enemy's entrenchments.

The war being closed, Washington returned to Mount Vernon. His time was now occupied in the peaceful pursuits of private life. He cultivated his lands, and improved his residence at Mount Vernon by additional buildings, and the laying out of his gardens and grounds. He occasionally diversified his employments by the pleasures of the chase. Much of his time, however, was occupied in discharging the grateful duties of hospitality. His fame was spread far and wide, and his home was crowded with guests, among whom were often seen illustrious strangers from foreign lands. During this happy period, Mrs. Washington performed the duties of a Virginia housewife, and presided at her well-spread board, with an ease and elegance of manner suited to her character and station.

The period at length arrived when Washington was again to leave his home, and enter upon public duties. Being elected President of the United States, he set out in the spring of 1789, to join Congress at New York, then the seat of the general government. Accompanied by his lady, he proceeded to that city, everywhere received by crowds of people, showering upon him their most grateful homage. At Trenton, New Jersey, he was received in a manner, which is said to have affected him even to tears. In addition to the usual military compliments, the bridge over the

creek running through the town was covered with a triumphal arch, supported by thirteen pillars entwined and ornamented with flowers and laurel, and bearing on the front, in large gilt letters, this inscription:—

“THE DEFENDER OF THE MOTHERS  
WILL BE THE  
PROTECTOR OF THE DAUGHTERS.”

Here were assembled the mothers and daughters dressed in white, each bearing a basket of flowers, which were strewn before the chief, while they sung in chorus.

“Welcome, mighty chief, once more,  
Welcome to this grateful shore;  
Now no mercenary foe  
Aims again the fatal blow,  
Aims at thee the fatal blow.

“Virgins fair and matrons grave,  
Those thy conquering arms did save,  
Build for thee triumphal bowers;  
Strew, ye fair, his way with flowers,  
Strew your hero's way with flowers.”

Arrived at New York, the president's establishment was formed upon a scale partaking at once of simplicity and dignity. “The house was handsomely furnished; the equipages neat, with horses of the first order; the servants wore the family liveries; and, with the exception of a steward and housekeeper, the whole establishment differed very little from that of a private gentleman. On Tuesdays, from three to four o'clock, the president received the foreign ambassadors and strangers who wished to be introduced to him. On these occasions, and when opening the session of Congress, he wore a dress sword. His personal apparel was always remarkable for being old-fashioned, and exceedingly plain and neat.

“On Thursdays were the congressional dinners, and on Friday night, Mrs. Washington's drawing-room. The company usually assembled about seven, and rarely stayed exceeding ten o'clock. The ladies were seated, and the president passed round the circle, paying his compliments to each. At the drawing-rooms, Mrs. Morris always sat at the right of the lady president, and at all dinners, public or private, at which Robert Morris was a guest, that venerable man was placed at the right of Mrs. Washington. When ladies called at the president's mansion, the habit was for the secretaries and gentlemen of the president's household to hand them to and from their carriages; but when the honored relicts of Greene and Montgomery came, the president himself performed these complimentary duties.

“On the great national festivals of the fourth of July, and the twenty-second of February, the sages of the revolutionary Congress and the officers of the revolutionary army renewed their acquaintance with Mrs. Washington. Many and kindly greetings took place, with many a recollection of the days of trial. The members of the Society of Cincinnati, after paying their respects to the chief, were seen to file off towards the parlor, where Lady Washington was in waiting to receive them, and where Wayne, and Mifflin, and Dickenson, and Stewart, and Moylan, and



Hartley, and a host of veterans, were cordially welcomed as old friends, and where many an interesting reminiscence was called up, of the headquarters and the "times of the revolution."

"On Sundays, unless the weather was uncommonly severe, the president and Mrs. Washington attended divine service at Christ Church; and in the evenings, the president read to Mrs. Washington, in her chamber, a sermon or some portion of the sacred writings. No visitors, with the exception of Mr. Trumbull, of Connecticut,—who was then speaker of the house, and afterwards governor of Connecticut,—were admitted on Sunday.

"There was one description of visitors, however, to be found about the first president's mansion on all days. The old soldiers repaired, as they said, to head-quarters, just to inquire after the health of his excellency and Lady Washington. They knew his excellency was, of course, much engaged; but they would like to see the good lady. One had been a soldier of the life-guard; another had been on duty, when the British threatened to surprise the head-quarters; a third had witnessed that terrible fellow, Cornwallis, surrender his sword; each one had some touching appeal, with which to introduce himself at the peaceful head-quarters of the president. All were "kindly bid to stay," were conducted to the steward's apartments, and refreshments set before them, and, after receiving some little token from the lady, with her best wishes for the health and happiness of an old soldier, they went their ways, while blessings upon their revered commander and the good Lady Washington were uttered by many a war-worn veteran of the revolution."\*

In the autumn of 1789, General Washington made a tour to the Eastern States. Soon after his return, Mrs. Washington addressed a letter to Mrs. Warren, of Boston, giving an account of her views and feelings at that period, which, as it is interesting for the information it contains, and alike creditable to the head and heart of the writer, we present to the reader. It is dated Dec. 26th, 1789.

"Your very friendly letter of last month has afforded much more satisfaction than all the formal compliments and empty ceremonies of mere etiquette could possibly have done. I am not apt to forget the feelings which have been inspired by my former society with good acquaintances, nor to be insensible to their expressions of gratitude to the president; for you know me well enough to do me the justice to believe that I am fond only of what comes from the heart. Under a conviction that the demonstrations of respect and affection to him originate in that source, I cannot deny that I have taken some interest and pleasure in them. The difficulties which first presented themselves to view on his first entering upon the presidency, seem thus to be in some measure surmounted. It is owing to the kindness of our numerous friends in all quarters, that my new and unwished for situation is not indeed a burden to me. When I was much younger, I should probably have enjoyed the innocent gayeties of life as much as most persons of my age; but I had long since placed all the prospects of my future happiness in the still enjoyments of the fireside at Mount Vernon.

"I little thought when the war was finished, that any circumstances could possibly happen, that would call the general into public life again.

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\* American Portrait Gallery.

I had anticipated that, from that moment, we should be suffered to grow old together in solitude and tranquillity. That was the first and dearest wish of my heart. I will not, however, contemplate with too much regret disappointments that were inevitable, though his feelings and my own were in perfect unison with respect to our predilection for private life. Yet I cannot blame him for having acted according to his ideas of duty in obeying the voice of his country. The consciousness of having attempted to do all the good in his power, and the pleasure of finding his fellow-citizens so well satisfied with the disinterestedness of his conduct, will, doubtless, be some compensation for the great sacrifices I know he has made. Indeed, on his journey from Mount Vernon to this place, in his late tour through the Eastern States, by every public and every private information which has come to him, I am persuaded he has experienced nothing to make him repent his having acted from what he conceived to be a sense of indispensable duty. On the contrary, all his sensibility has been awakened in receiving such repeated and unequivocal proofs of sincere regard from his countrymen.

"With respect to myself, I sometimes think the arrangement is not quite as it ought to be—that I, who had much rather be at home, should occupy a place with which a great many younger and gayer women would be extremely pleased. As my grandchildren and domestic connections make up a great portion of the felicity which I looked for in this world, I shall hardly be able to find any substitute that will indemnify me for the loss of a part of such endearing society. I do not say this because I feel dissatisfied with my present station; for everybody and everything conspire to make me as contented as possible in it; yet I have learned too much of the vanity of human affairs to expect felicity from the scenes of public life. I am still determined to be cheerful and happy in whatever situation I may be; for I have also learned from experience that the greater part of our happiness or misery depends upon our dispositions, and not on our circumstances. We carry the seeds of the one or the other about with us in our minds wherever we go.

"I have two of my grandchildren with me, who enjoy advantages in point of education, and who, I trust, by the goodness of Providence, will be a great blessing to me. My other two grandchildren are with their mother in Virginia."

In the spring of 1797, bidding adieu to public life, Washington took leave of the seat of government, and returned to Mount Vernon, prepared in good earnest to spend the remainder of his days in retirement. He accepted, indeed, the command of the army of the United States, soon after; but this did not draw him from his home. In 1799, he died, after a brief illness. His affectionate partner was at his bedside when his spirit departed. "It is all over now," said she. "I shall soon follow him. I have no more trials to pass through." About two years after, she was seized with bilious fever. Being perfectly aware that her end was at hand, she assembled her grandchildren at her bedside, discoursed with them of their duties in life, of the happy influences of religion, of the consolations it had afforded her in hours of affliction, and the hopes it offered of a blessed immortality; and then, surrounded by weeping relatives, friends, and domestics, the venerable relict of Washington resigned her life into the hands of her Creator, in the seventy-first year of her age.



Few women have figured in the great drama of life, amid scenes so varied and imposing, with so few faults, and so many virtues, as Martha Washington. Identified with the Father of his country in the great events which led to our national independence, she partook much of his thoughts, views, and counsels. In the dark hours of trial, her cheerfulness soothed him in his anxieties, and her devotional piety aided him in drawing hope and confidence from Heaven. She was indeed the fit partner of Washington, and, in her sphere, appears to have discharged her duties with a dignity, devotion, and consistency, worthy of her exalted destinies.

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## JOAN OF ARC.

**J**OAN OF ARC, surnamed the "Maid of Orleans," from her heroic defence of that city, was born about the year 1410 or '11, in the little hamlet of Domremy, near the Meuse, and about three leagues south of Vaucouleurs, on the borders of Champagne. Her parents were humble and honest peasants. The district was remarkable for the devout simplicity of its inhabitants, as well as for the romantic superstitions, which, in a rude age, are so often allied with religion. It appears from the copious depositions of witnesses from Domremy, examined at Joan's trial, that she was unremitting in her prayers and other religious exercises, and was strongly imbued, at a very early age, with the prevailing superstitions of her native place.

During that period of anarchy in France, when the supreme power, fallen from the hands of a monarch deprived of his reason, was contended for by the rival houses of Orleans and Burgundy, the conflicting parties carried on war more by murder and massacre than by regular battles. When an army was wanted, both had recourse to the English; and these conquering strangers made the unfortunate French feel still deeper the horrors and ravages of war. At first, the popular feeling was undecided; but when, on the death of Charles VI., the crown fell to a young prince who adopted the Armagnac side, whilst the house of Burgundy had sworn allegiance to a foreigner, Henry V., as king of France,—then, indeed, the wishes and interests of all the French were in favor of the Armagnacs, or the truly patriotic party. Remote as was the village of Domremy, it was still interested in the issue of the struggle. It was decidedly Armagnac, and was strengthened in this sentiment by the rivalry of a neighboring village, which adopted Burgundian colors.

Political and party interests were thus forced upon the enthusiastic mind of Joan, and mingled with the pious legends she had caught from the traditions of the Virgin. A prophecy was current that a virgin should rid France of her enemies, and this prophecy seems to have been realized by its effect on the mind of Joan. The girl, by her own account, was about thirteen, when a supernatural vision first appeared to her. She described it as a great light, accompanied by a voice telling her to be devout and

good, and promising her the protection of Heaven. Joan responded by a vow of eternal chastity. From that time the voice or voices continued to haunt Joan, and to echo the enthusiastic and restless wishes of her own heart. Her own simple account was, that "voices" were her visitors and advisers, and that they prompted her to quit her native place, take up arms, drive the foe before her, and procure for the young king his coronation at Rheims. These voices, however, had not influence enough to induce her to set out upon the hazardous mission, until a band of Burgundians, traversing and plundering the country, had compelled Joan, together with her parents, to take refuge in a neighboring town. When they returned to their village, after the departure of the marauders, they found the church of Domremy in ashes.

Such incidents were well calculated to arouse the indignation and excite the enthusiasm of Joan. Her "voices" returned, and incessantly directed her to set out for Orleans, but to commence by making application to De Baudricourt, commander at Vaucouleurs. Her parents, who were acquainted with Joan's martial propensities, attempted to force her into a marriage; but she contrived to avoid this by paying a visit to an uncle, in whose company she made her appearance before the governor of Vaucouleurs, in May, 1428. De Baudricourt at first refused to see her, and upon granting an interview, treated her pretensions with contempt. She then returned to her uncle's abode, where she continued to announce her project, and to insist that the prophecy that "France lost by a woman,—Isabel of Bavaria,—should be saved by a virgin from the frontiers of Lorraine,"—alluded to her. She it was, she asserted, who could save France and not "either kings, or dukes, nor yet the king of Scotland's daughter,"—an expression which proves how well-informed she was as to the political events and rumors of the day.

The fortunes of the dauphin Charles, at this time, had sunk to the lowest ebb. Orleans, almost his last bulwark, was besieged and closely pressed, and the loss of the battle of "Herrings" seemed to take away all hope of saving the city from the English. In this crisis, when all human support seemed unavailing, Baudricourt no longer despised the supernatural aid promised by the damsel of Domremy, and gave permission to John of Metz, and Bertram of Poulegny, two gentlemen who had become converts to the truth of her divine mission, to conduct Joan of Arc to the dauphin. They purchased a horse for her, and, at her own desire, furnished her with male habits, and other necessary equipments. Thus provided, and accompanied by a respectable escort, Joan set out for Vaucouleurs on the 13th of February, 1429. Her progress through regions attached to the Burgundian interest was perilous, but she safely arrived at Fierbois, a place within five or six leagues of Chinon, where the dauphin then held his court. At Fierbois was a celebrated church, dedicated to St. Catherine; and here she spent her time in devotion, whilst a messenger was despatched to the dauphin to announce her approach. She was commanded to proceed, and reached Chinon on the eleventh day after her departure from Vaucouleurs.

Charles, though he desired, still feared, the proffered aid. After due consultation, however, it was concluded to grant Joan's request, and she received the rank of a military commander. A suit of armor was made for her, and she sent to Fierbois for a sword which, she said, would be



found buried in a certain spot in the church. It was found there, and conveyed to her. The circumstance became afterwards one of the alleged proofs of her sorcery or imposture. Her having passed some time at Fierbois, among the ecclesiastics of the place, must have led, in some way or other, to her knowledge of the deposit. Strong in the conviction of her mission, it was Joan's desire to enter Orleans from the north, and through all the fortifications of the English. Dunois, however, and the other leaders at length overruled her, and induced her to abandon the little company of pious companions which she had raised, and to enter the beleaguered city by water, as the least perilous path. She succeeded in carrying with her a convoy of provisions to the besieged.

The entry of Joan of Arc into Orleans, at the end of April, was itself a triumph. The hearts of the besieged were raised from despair to a fanatical confidence of success; and the English, who in every encounter had defeated the French, felt their courage paralyzed by the coming of this simple girl. We cannot give the details of the wonderful events that followed. It must suffice to say, that the French were inspired with the utmost courage, and after a series of great achievements, in which the wonderful maiden took the lead, the siege was raised. Thus, in one week after her arrival, the beleaguered city was relieved. The most incredible of her promises was now fulfilled, and she henceforth received the title of "Maid of Orleans."

The French now carried all before them, under the guidance of this maiden leader; and, in three months after she came to the relief of Charles, he was crowned at Rheims, which had surrendered to his arms. After a series of successes, she was in one instance defeated, and finally was captured in a sally against the enemy, May, 1430. She was now handed over to the English partisans in France, brought to trial on the charge of sorcery, and condemned to death. A pile of wood was prepared in the market-place at Rouen, and, encircled by a body of judges and ecclesiastics, she was burned to death, and her ashes thrown into the Seine. This took place in May, 1431. Thus perished one of the most pure, lovely, and exalted beings that ever lived. In 1454, a revision of her sentence took place, and a monument was erected to her honor, on the spot where she had been inhumanly put to death.

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## NAPOLEON'S LAST FUNERAL.



F all the great and remarkable men of modern times, Napoleon Bonaparte was the most wonderful. He was a son of a lawyer of Corsica, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, belonging to France. From a humble station he rose to be the Emperor of France, and the greatest general of modern times. He hurled kings from their thrones, and put others in their places. He dismembered empires, and created new ones. He made the whole earth ring with his mighty deeds. But one thing he

could not do—he could not conquer himself. His ambition led him on from one step of injustice to another, till the embattled armies of Europe appeared in the field against him. He was defeated, dethroned, and taken on board a British ship to the rocky and lonely island of St. Helena, where he died in 1821.

After being entombed for almost twenty years, the King of the French, Louis Philippe, sent out a ship to bring back his body to France, to be reëntombed in the capital of the empire of which he once swayed the sceptre.

The body of the emperor was found in the earth at St. Helena, where it had been deposited in a tomb of very strong and compact masonry, so that although the workmen began at noon, it was ten o'clock at night before they were able to reach the body. It was enclosed in three coffins, two of mahogany and one of lead, all of which were found in a perfect state, though nearly twenty years had elapsed since they had been laid in the earth.

It is difficult to describe with what anxiety, with what emotions, those who were present waited for the moment which was to expose to them all that death had left of Napoleon. Notwithstanding the singular state of preservation of the tomb and coffins, they could scarcely hope to find anything but some misshapen remains of the least perishable parts of the costume to evidence the identity. But when, by the hand of Dr. Guillard, the satin sheet over the body was raised, an indescribable feeling of surprise and affection was expressed by the spectators, most of whom burst into tears. The emperor himself was before their eyes! The features of his face, though changed, were perfectly recognized—the hands perfectly beautiful—his well-known costume had suffered but little, and the colors were easily distinguished—the epaulets, the decorations, and the hat, seemed to be entirely preserved from decay—the attitude itself was full of ease; and but for the fragments of the satin lining, which covered as with a fine gauze several parts of the uniform, they might have believed that they saw before them Napoleon still extended on a bed of state. General Bertrand and M. Marchand, who were present at the interment, quickly pointed out the different articles which each had deposited in the coffin, and in the precise position which they had previously described. It was even remarked that the left hand, which General Bertrand had taken to kiss for the last time before the coffin was closed up, still remained slightly raised.

The body was now placed in a new leaden coffin or sarcophagus, sent out from France for the purpose, and conveyed with appropriate ceremonies on board a French man-of-war, which immediately sailed for Cherbourg. Great preparations were made in France for its reception. On the arrival of the ship at Cherbourg, a steamboat was ready to convey it up the Seine to Paris. A great number of steamboats and vessels of all sorts were collected together, forming a numerous fleet, under convoy of which the corpse was transported up the river, stopping occasionally at the cities and towns on the way, to allow the inhabitants the opportunity of gratifying their curiosity and displaying their enthusiasm, by paying homage to the remains of the greatest soldier and chieftain of the French empire. The crowds that assembled all along the banks of the river were immense. The military turned out by hundreds and thousands. All sorts of pageantry, exhibition, and pompous show—consisting of triumphal arches, pyramids, bridges, columns, and other fanciful and imposing devices—contributed to give effect to the solemnities.



On the fourteenth of December, 1840, the procession reached St. Germain, a place within a few miles of Paris. The crowd of spectators which had thronged to the spot from Paris was so immense, that it was impossible to proceed and land the body till the middle of the next day. Two battalions of troops were stationed on the banks of the river; and the stream was covered with vessels decked with laurels and wreaths of *immortelles*, a bright, unfading, yellow flower, very much in use among the French on funeral occasions.

At the great bridge of Neuilly, three or four miles from Paris, an immense rostral column had been prepared, surmounted by a ball or globe, representing the world, and six feet in diameter. This was crowned by a huge eagle; but owing to the intense cold of the weather, the design was not wholly completed. On the base of this column was the following inscription, containing the last request of Napoleon: "*I wish my ashes to repose on the banks of the Seine.*" A wharf had been built at this place for the express purpose of landing the coffin, and here the body of Napoleon first touched the soil of France. At the extremity of the wharf a Grecian temple, one hundred feet in height, was erected; and at the end of the bridge of Neuilly was a colossal statue of the Empress Josephine.

From Paris to Neuilly there extends a beautiful broad avenue, ornamented with rows of trees and handsome buildings. Along this road the population of the capital began to throng in immense multitudes before daylight the next morning. It was computed that five hundred thousand persons crowded into this avenue on the morning of the landing of the body. The troops of the National Guard were drawn up on the bank of the river; prayers were said over the corpse, and the coffin was borne to the land by twenty-four sailors. The artillery fired a salute of twenty-one rounds, and the multitudes that thronged the banks of the river rent the air with their shouts. The body was then placed in a magnificent *catafalque* or funeral car, twenty-five feet in length, with gilt wheels, and decorated with golden eagles. On the car was a pedestal eighteen feet long and seven feet high, richly ornamented and hung with gold and purple cloth. On this pedestal stood fourteen *cariatides* or columnar human figures of colossal size, supporting with their heads and hands an immense golden shield. The coffin was laid on this shield. On the coffin was placed a rich cushion, sustaining the sceptre, the hand of justice, and the imperial crown, studded with jewels. The whole formed a structure fifty feet in height, and was drawn by sixteen black horses, richly caparisoned after the manner of the middle ages.

The procession then took up its march for Paris. In the procession was the war-horse of Napoleon, and five hundred sailors who accompanied the corpse from St. Helena. The whole avenue to Paris was lined with troops. Round the great triumphal arch at the entrance of the city, were lofty masts bearing tri-colored pennants surrounded with black crape, and exhibiting each the name of some one of the armies of the Republic or the Empire, as "The Army of the Rhine"—"The Army of Italy," &c. On entering the city, the crowd was so immense that the procession had great difficulty in forcing its way onward. The number of spectators was estimated at 800,000. This is equal to the whole population of Paris; yet when we take into the account the great numbers that resorted to the capital from all parts of the kingdom to witness so grand and interesting a ceremony, this estimate does not appear very improbable.

The place destined for the reception of Napoleon's body was the Hotel des Invalides, a spacious edifice erected by Louis XIV., and which is one of the finest and most interesting buildings in Paris. It is beautifully situated on the river Seine, with a spacious esplanade in front. In the chapel of this building, preparations had been made for the funeral service over the body. The walls were hung with black draperies bordered with silver, and large lustres were placed between the pillars, contrasting their brilliant lights with the dark draperies around them. The pillars were ornamented with gilded trophies, with the names of Napoleon's victories, Marengo, Austerlitz, Wagram, &c. The galleries above, thronged with countless multitudes of spectators, were also hung with black, with silver and gold emblems, laurels, and golden letters commemorating the principal acts of the emperor's life. Above were hung an immense number of standards, taken from the enemy in different battles. In front of the altar was erected a tomb, standing on pillars and surmounted by an eagle. This structure was of gilt wood, and only temporary; it will soon be replaced by one of marble.

Here were assembled the king, the royal family, and the chief personages of the court, the Archbishop of Paris and other dignitaries of the church, and a great number of generals and veterans of Napoleon's wars. At two o'clock the procession arrived, and the body of Napoleon was brought into the chapel. This was the most impressive part of the whole ceremony. The steps leading to the choir were lined on both sides by the military and the veteran invalids, so many of whom had fought under the deceased emperor. The whole of the aisle was filled with troops, and the whole body of the clergy stood in religious silence, waiting to perform the last offices of religion. The drums rolled, the cannons roared, and the muffled drums announced the approach of the body. At the sight of the coffin, surmounted with the imperial crown of Napoleon, the whole body of spectators appeared to be struck by a sudden thrill. Every one rose up and bent forward, but not a word was uttered; a religious silence and awe pervaded the whole multitude!

Mass was then said over the body according to the forms of the Roman Catholic religion, after which Mozart's celebrated requiem was sung by a choir of musicians. The coffin was then sprinkled with holy water by the Archbishop, and the ceremony concluded. The crowd remained long in the chapel, to satiate their curiosity by gazing on the splendid decorations of the place and the long vista of funeral pomp. At length the military succeeded in clearing the chapel of the throngs of spectators; the people dispersed; and the body of Napoleon lay once more in the silence of the tomb!

A magnificent sarcophagus is being erected over the place where the body is deposited, in the Hotel des Invalides, and will soon be completed, (1848.)



## SIMON KENTON, THE PIONEER.

**S**IMON KENTON, one of the most noted pioneers of the west, was born in Virginia in 1755. He was of humble parentage, and of mixed Scotch and Irish origin. In the spring of 1771, three years before Dunmore's war, when he was just sixteen years of age, he had a serious quarrel with a young man, a neighbor, by the name of Veach. Simon became desperately enamored with a young lady, who soon after married young Veach. Stung to frenzy by this disappointment, and imagining himself exquisitely injured, he, in the heat of passion, attended the wedding uninvited. As soon as he entered the room, he went forward and intruded himself between the groom and his bride. The result was, that young Veach, as soon as his back was turned, knocked him down, gave him a severe beating, and he was expelled from the house with black eyes and sore bones.

A few days after, he met Veach alone, and anxious to repair his wounded honor, had a pitched battle with him. Victory for some time hung on a doubtful balance. Simon at length threw his antagonist to the ground, and as quick as thought drawing his cue of long hair around a small sapling, kicked him in his breast and stomach until all resistance ceased. Veach attempted to rise, but immediately sunk and began to vomit blood. As Simon had not intended to kill him, he now raised him up and spoke kindly to him, but he made no answer, and sunk to the ground apparently lifeless. Erroneously supposing he had murdered him, he was overcome with the most poignant and awful sensations, and immediately fled to the woods. Lying concealed by day, and traveling by night, he passed over the Alleghanies, until he arrived, nearly starved, at a settlement on Cheat River, where he changed his name to Simon Butler. Soon after he went to Fort Pitt. Until Dunmore's war broke out, he employed himself mainly in hunting. Kenton described this as the most happy period of his life. He was in fine health, found plenty of game and fish, and free from the cares of an ambitious world and the vexations of domestic life, he passed his time in that happy state of ease, indolence, and independence, which is the glory of the hunter of the forest.

One cold evening in March, after a hard day's hunt, Kenton and his two companions were reposing upon bear-skin pallets, before a cheerful camp fire, in the Kanawha region, when suddenly the sharp crack of an Indian rifle laid one of their number a lifeless corpse. They were surrounded by a party of lurking Indians. Kenton and his surviving companion sprang to their feet, and instantly fled with only their lives and their shirts. Thus exposed, in winter weather, in the wilderness, they were compelled to wander through briars, over rough stones and frozen ground, without fire and without food for six days, until at last they fell in with a party of hunters descending the Ohio, and obtained relief. Their legs and bodies had become so lacerated and torn that they were more than two days in traveling the last two miles.

During Dunmore's war Kenton was employed as a spy. In the spring of 1775, he descended the Ohio to explore the famous "cane lands" of Kentucky. He and his companion, Williams, landed at the mouth of Limestone, on the site of Maysville, made a camp a few miles inland, and finished a small clearing, where they planted some corn—the first planted north of Kentucky River. Here, tending their corn with their tomahawks, they remained the undisputed masters of all they could see, until they had the pleasure of eating roasting ears.

In one of his solitary hunting excursions, at this time, Kenton, disguised as an Indian, encountered upon the waters of Elkhorn, Michael Stoner, a hunter from North Carolina, also in Indian guise. A silent contest of Indian strategy for mutual destruction commenced, but not a word was spoken. Each believing his antagonist an Indian, sought, by all the arts of Indian warfare, to protect himself and draw the enemy's fire. After mutual efforts and manoeuvres ineffectually to draw each other from his shelter, or to steal his fire, Stoner suspecting that his antagonist was *not* an Indian, from his covert, exclaimed, "For God's sake, if you are a white man, speak!" The spell was broken, and they became companions in the solitary wilderness. Stoner conducted and introduced Kenton to the new settlements of Boonesborough and Harrodsburg. He had before supposed that he and Williams were the first settlers of Kentucky.

He returned a short time after to his camp and clearing. But the Indians had been there and plundered it. Hard by, he found the evidences of a fire, with human bones near it, which proclaimed too sadly the fate of Williams, the first victim of the war in Kentucky.

Kenton returned to Harrodsburg, and served the different stations in the capacity of a spy and ranger, to detect the approach of the Indians. He became highly distinguished for his courage, skill and stratagem against the wary savage. He had then just arrived at manhood, and was a noble specimen of the hardy, active backwoodsman hunter. He was over six feet in stature, erect, graceful and of uncommon strength, endurance and agility. His complexion and hair were light, and his soft, grayish blue eye was lighted up by a bewitching, fascinating smile. He was frank, generous and confiding to a fault, and was more interested in doing a kindness to others than in serving himself. When enraged, his glance was withering. To give a full account of his adventures would fill a volume. A few anecdotes must answer.

Early one morning in the summer of 1778, Kenton, with two companions, was just leaving the fort at Boonesborough, on a hunting excursion, when two men who had gone into a field to drive in some horses, were fired upon by five Indians. They fled, and when within about seventy yards of the fort, an Indian overtook, killed one of them by a blow with his tomahawk, and was commencing to scalp him, when Kenton shot him down. He and his companions then drove the remainder into the forest. In the meantime, Daniel Boone, with ten men, came out to their assistance. As they were advancing, Kenton discovered and shot another Indian, just as he was in the act of firing. By the time Boone had come up, they heard a rush of footsteps upon their left, and discovered that a number of Indians had got between them and the gate. Their peril was extreme. As their only salvation, Boone gave the desperate order to charge through the Indian column; upon which, they first discharged their rifles, and then



clubbing them, dashed down all who stood in their way. The attempt was successful; but Boone would have lost his life if it had not been for Kenton. An Indian bullet broke the leg of Boone, and he fell. An Indian sprang forward, uplifted his tomahawk for the fatal blow, when Kenton shot him through the body, and seizing Boone from the ground, carried him safe into the fort. Of the fourteen men engaged in this affray, seven were wounded, but none mortally. Boone, after they had got in, sent for Kenton, and said, "Well, Simon, you have behaved like a man to-day! indeed you are a fine fellow!" This simple eulogium touched the heart of Kenton.

Boonesborough was twice again besieged by the Indians ere the close of the summer, during which, the garrison was reduced to great extremities for want of food, and would have perished but for his skill and fearless daring. In the dead of night, at the peril of his life, Kenton was accustomed to steal through the camp of the enemy, and plunge into the forest far beyond, in search of deer and elk. In June, 1778, he was the first volunteer, from the Kentucky stations, in Clarke's hazardous expedition against Illinois. He was the first man that entered Fort Gage, and the one who surprised Governor Rocheblave in his bed, and compelled him to surrender the garrison.

The most marked incidents in his history, are the circumstances of his captivity among the Indians. They are briefly these: In September, 1778, Kenton, Montgomery and Clarke, left the stations in Kentucky to obtain horses from the Indians. They crossed the Ohio, and proceeded cautiously to the Indian village, on the site of Oldtown, near the site of Chillicothe. They caught seven horses, and rapidly retreated to the Ohio; but the wind blowing almost a hurricane made the river so rough that they could not induce their horses to take to the water. The next day they were come up with by the Indians in pursuit. The whites happened, at the moment, to be separated. Kenton judging the boldest course to be the safest, very deliberately took aim at the foremost Indian. His gun flashed in the pan. He then retreated. The Indians pursued on horseback. In his retreat, he passed through a piece of land where a storm had torn up a great part of the timber. The fallen trees afforded him some advantage of the Indians in the race, as they were on horseback and he on foot. The Indian force divided; some rode on one side of the fallen timber, and some on the other. Just as he emerged from the fallen timber, at the foot of the hill, one of the Indians met him on horseback, and boldly rode up to him, jumped off his horse and rushed at him with his tomahawk. Kenton concluding a gun barrel as good a weapon of defense as a tomahawk, drew back his gun to strike the Indian before him. At that instant, another Indian, who, unperceived by Kenton, had slipped up behind him, clasped him in his arms. Being now overpowered by numbers, further resistance was useless—he surrendered. While the Indians were binding Kenton with tugs Montgomery came in view and fired at the Indians, but missed his mark. Montgomery fled on foot. Some of the Indians pursued, shot at, and missed him; a second fire was made, and Montgomery fell. The Indians soon returned to Kenton, shaking at him Montgomery's bloody scalp. Clarke, Kenton's other companion, escaped.

The horrors of his captivity during nine months among the Indians may be briefly enumerated, but they cannot be described. The sufferings of

his body may be recounted, but the anguish of his mind, the internal torments of spirit, none but himself could know.

The first regular torture was the hellish one of Mazeppa. He was securely bound, hand and foot, upon the back of an unbroken horse, which plunged furiously through the forest, through thickets, briers, and brush, vainly endeavoring to extricate himself from the back of his unwelcome rider until completely exhausted. By this time Kenton had been bruised, lacerated, scratched, and mangled, until life itself was nearly extinct, while his sufferings had afforded the most unbounded ecstasies of mirth to his savage captors. This, however, was only a prelude to subsequent sufferings.

Upon the route to the Indian towns, for the greater security of their prisoner, the savages bound him securely, with his body extended upon the ground, and each foot and hand tied to a stake or sapling; and to preclude the possibility of escape, a young sapling was laid across his breast, having its extremities well secured to the ground, while a rope secured his neck to another sapling. In this condition, nearly naked, and exposed to swarms of gnats and mosquitoes, he was compelled to spend the tedious night upon the cold ground, exposed to the chilling dews of autumn.

On the third day, at noon, he was within one mile of old Chillicothe, the present site of Frankfort, where he was detained in confinement until the next day. Towards evening, curiosity had brought hundreds, of all sexes and conditions, to view the great Kentuckian. Their satisfaction at his wretched condition was evinced by numerous grunts, kicks, blows and stripes, inflicted amid applauding yells, dancing, and every demonstration of savage indignation. This, however, was only a prelude to a more energetic mode of torture the next day, in which the whole village was to be partakers. The torture of a prisoner is a school for the young warrior, to stir up his hatred for their white enemies, and keep alive the fire of revenge, while it affords sport and mirth to gratify the vindictive rage of bereaved mothers and relatives, by participating in the infliction of the agonies which he is compelled to suffer.

Running the gantlet was the torture of the next day, when nearly three hundred Indians, of both sexes and all ages, were assembled for the savage festival. The ceremony commenced. Kenton, nearly naked, and freed from his bonds, was produced as the victim of the ceremony. The Indians were ranged in two parallel lines, about six feet apart, all armed with sticks, hickory rods, whips, and other means of inflicting pain. Between these lines, for more than half a mile, to the village, the wretched prisoner was doomed to run for his life, exposed to such injury as his tormentors could inflict as he passed. If he succeeded in reaching the council house alive, it would prove an asylum to him for the present. At a given signal, Kenton started in the perilous race. Exerting his utmost strength and activity, he passed swiftly along the line, receiving numerous blows, stripes, buffets and wounds, until he approached the town, near which he saw an Indian leisurely awaiting his advance with a drawn knife in his hand, intent upon his death. To avoid him, he instantly broke through the line, and made his rapid way toward the council house, pursued by the promiscuous crowd, whooping and yelling like infernal furies at his heels. Entering the town in advance of his pursuers, just as he had supposed the council house within his reach, an Indian was perceived leisurely approach-



ing him, with his blanket wrapped around him; but suddenly he threw off his blanket, and sprung upon Kenton as he advanced. Exhausted with fatigue and wounds, he was thrown to the ground, and in a moment he was beset with crowds, eager to strip him, and to inflict upon him each the kick or blow which had been avoided by breaking through the line. Here, beaten, kicked, and scourged until he was nearly lifeless, he was left to die. A few hours afterward, having partially revived, he was supplied with food and water, and was suffered to recuperate for a few days, until he was able to attend at the council house and receive the announcement of his final doom.

After a violent discussion, the council, by a large majority, determined that he should be made a public sacrifice to the vengeance of the nation; and the decision was announced by a burst of savage joy, with yells and shouts which made the welkin ring. The place of execution was Wappatomica, the present site of Zanesfield, in Logan county, Ohio. On his route to this place, he was taken through Pickaway and Mackacheck, on the Scioto, where he was again compelled to undergo the torture of the gantlet, and was scourged through the line. At this place, smarting under his wounds and bruises, he was detained several days, in order that he might recuperate preparatory to his march to Wappatomica. At length, being carelessly guarded, he determined, if possible, to make his escape from the impending doom. In this attempt he had proceeded two miles from the place of confinement, when he was met by two Indians on horseback, who in a brutal manner drove him back to the village. The last ray of hope had now expired, and loathing a life of continual suffering, he in despair, resigned himself to his fate.

His late attempt to escape had brought upon him a repetition of savage torture, which had well nigh closed his sufferings forever, and he verily believed himself a "God-forsaken wretch." Taken to a neighboring creek, he was thrown in and dragged through mud and water, and submerged repeatedly, until life was nearly extinct, when he was again left in a dying state; but the constitutional vigor within him revived, and a few days afterward he was taken to Wappatomica for execution. At Wappatomica he first saw, at a British trading post, his old friend Simon Girty, who had become a renegade, in all the glory of his Indian life, surrounded by swarms of Indians, who had come to view the doomed prisoner and to witness his torture. Yet Girty suspected not the presence of his old acquaintance at Fort Pitt. Although well acquainted with Kenton only a few years before, his present mangled condition and his blackened face left no traces of recognition in Girty's mind. Looking upon him as a doomed victim, beyond the reach of pity or hope, he could view him only as the victim of sacrifice; but so soon as Kenton succeeded in making himself known to Girty, the hard heart of the latter at once relented, and sympathizing with his miserable condition and still more horrid doom, he resolved to make an effort for his release. His whole personal influence, and his eloquence, no less than his intrigue, were put in requisition for the safety of his fallen friend. He portrayed in strong language the policy of preserving the life of the prisoner, and the advantage which might accrue to the Indians from the possession of one so intimately acquainted with all the white settlements. For a time Girty's eloquence prevailed, and a respite was granted; but suspicions arose, and he was again summoned

before the council. The death of Kenton was again decreed. Again the influence of Girty prevailed, and through finesse he accomplished a further respite, together with the removal of the prisoner to Sandusky. Here, again, the council decreed his death, and again he was compelled to submit to the terrors of the gantlet, preliminary to his execution. Still Girty did not relax his efforts. Despairing of his own influence with the council, he secured the aid and influence of Logan, "the friend of white men." Logan interceded with Captain Drouillard, a British officer, and procured through him the offer of a liberal ransom to the vindictive savages for the life of the prisoner. Captain Drouillard met the council, and urged the great advantage such a prisoner would be to the commandant at Detroit, in procuring from him such information as would greatly facilitate his future operations against the rebel colonies. At the same time, appealing to their avarice, he suggested that the ransom would be proportionate to the value of the prisoner.

Drouillard guaranteed the ransom of one hundred dollars for his delivery, and Kenton was given to him in charge for the commandant at Detroit. As soon as his mind was out of suspense, his robust constitution and iron frame recovered from the severe treatment which they had undergone. Kenton passed the winter and spring at Detroit. Among the prisoners were Captain Nathan Bullit and Jesse Coffey. They had the liberty of the town, and could stroll about at pleasure.

With these two men, Kenton began to meditate an escape. They had frequent conferences on the subject; but the enterprise was almost too appalling for even these hardy, enterprising pioneers. If they should make this bold push, they would have to travel nearly four hundred miles through the Indian country, where they would be exposed to death by starvation, by flood, by the tomahawk, or to capture, almost at every step. But the longer they brooded over the enterprise, the stronger their resolutions grew to make the attempt. They could make no movement to procure arms, ammunition, or provision, without exciting suspicion; and should they be once suspected they would be immediately confined. In this situation, they could only brood over their wished flight in secret and in silence. Kenton was a fine looking man, with a dignified and manly deportment, and a soft, pleasing voice, and was, everywhere he went, a favorite among the ladies. A Mrs. Harvey, the wife of an Indian trader, had treated him with particular respect ever since he came to Detroit, and he concluded if he could engage this lady as a confidant, by her assistance and countenance, ways and means could be prepared to aid them in their meditated flight. Kenton approached Mrs. Harvey on this delicate and interesting subject, with as much trepidation and coyness as ever maiden was approached in a love affair. The great difficulty with Kenton was to get the subject opened with Mrs. Harvey. If she should reject his suit and betray his intentions, all his fond hopes would be at once blasted. However, at length he concluded to trust this lady with the scheme of his meditated flight, and the part he wished her to act for him. He watched an opportunity to have a private interview with Mrs. Harvey; an opportunity soon offered, and he, without disguise or hesitation, in full confidence, informed her of his intention, and requested her aid and secrecy. She appeared at first astonished at his proposal, and observed that it was not in her power to afford him any aid. Kenton told her he did not expect or



wish her to be at any expense on their account—that they had a little money for which they had labored, and that they wished her to be their agent to purchase such articles as would be necessary for them in their flight—that if they should go to purchasing it would create suspicion, but that she could aid them in this way without creating any suspicion; and if she would be their friend, they had no doubt they could effect their escape. This appeal from such a fine looking man as Kenton was irresistible. There was something pleasing in being the selected confidant of such a man; and the lady, though a little coy at first, surrendered at discretion. After a few chit chats, she entered into the views of Kenton with as much earnestness and enthusiasm as if she had been his sister. She began to collect and conceal such articles as might be necessary in the journey—powder, lead, moccasins, and dried beef were procured in small quantities, and concealed in a hollow tree some distance out of town. Guns were still wanting, and it would not do for a lady to trade in them. Mr. Harvey had an excellent fowling piece, if nothing better should offer, that she said should be at their service. They had now everything that they expected to take with them in their flight ready, except guns.

At length the third day of June, 1779, came, and a large concourse of Indians were in town engaged in a drunken frolic; they had stacked their guns near Mrs. Harvey's house; as soon as it was dark, Mrs. Harvey went quietly to where the Indians' guns were stacked, and selected the three best looking rifles, carried them into her garden, and concealed them in a patch of peas. She next went privately to Kenton's lodging, and conveyed to him the intelligence where she had hid the Indians' guns. She told him she would place a ladder at the back of the garden (it was picketed,) and that he could come in and get the guns. No time was to be lost; Kenton conveyed the good news he had from Mrs. Harvey to his companions, who received the tidings in ecstasies of joy; they felt as if they were already at home. It was a dark night; Kenton, Bullit and Coffer gathered up their little all and pushed to Mrs. Harvey's garden. There they found the ladder; Kenton mounted over, drew the ladder over after him, went to the pea-patch, found Mrs. Harvey sitting by the guns; she handed him the rifles, gave him a friendly shake of the hand, and bid him a safe journey to his friends and countrymen. She appeared to Kenton and his comrades as an angel. When a woman engages to do an action, she will risk limb, life, or character to serve those whom she respects or wishes to befriend. How differently the same action will be viewed by different persons—by Kenton and his friends her conduct was viewed as the benevolent action of a good angel; while if the part she played in behalf of Kenton and his companions had been known to the commander at Detroit, she would have been looked upon as a traitress, who merited the scorn and contempt of all honest citizens. This night was the last time that Kenton ever saw or heard of her.

A few days before Kenton left Detroit, he had a conversation with an Indian trader, a Scotchman by the name of McKensie, who was well acquainted with the geography of the country and range of the Indians between the lakes and the Ohio and Mississippi. The Scotchman slyly observed to Kenton, that if he was going to Kentucky, and did not wish to meet with the Indians, he would steer more west than the common route, and get into Wabash prairies as soon as possible. Kenton did not know

what to think of the remarks of the Scotchman. He began to think that perhaps Mrs. Harvey had divulged his secret to this man, and that he was pumping Kenton; or probably he wished to aid him, and this was offering friendly advice. As no more was said, he did not pretend to notice what the Scotchman said, but treasured the remarks in his mind.

As soon as Kenton and his companions took their leave of their friend and benefactress, Mrs. Harvey, they made their way to the little store in the hollow tree, bundled up, and pushed for the wood, and steered a more westerly than the direct course to Kentucky. They had no doubt but every effort would be made to retake them; they were, consequently, very circumspect and cautious in leaving as few traces, by which they might be discovered, as possible. They went on slowly, traveling mostly in the night, steering their course by the cluster called the seven stars, until they reached the prairie country on the Wabash. In this time, though they had been very sparing of their stock of provision, it was now exhausted, and their lives depended on their guns. In these large prairies there was but little game, and they were days without provision. They, like the Hebrews of old, began to wish themselves again with the flesh pots at Detroit. One day as they were passing down the Wabash, they were just emerging out of a thicket of brushwood, when an Indian encampment presented itself to their view, and not more than one hundred and fifty or two hundred yards from them. No ghastly visit could have set their hair on end sooner. They immediately dodged back into the thicket, and concealed themselves until night. They were now almost exhausted with fatigue and hunger—they could only travel a few miles in a day. They lay still in the thicket, consulting with each other the most proper measures to pursue in this their precarious situation. Bullit and Coffey thought the best plan to save their lives, would be voluntarily to surrender themselves to the Indians. The Indians who had taken them had not treated them so roughly as Kenton had been handled. Kenton wished to lay still until night, and make as little sign as possible, and as soon as it was dark they would push ahead, and trust the event to Providence. After considerable debate, Kenton's plan was adopted. The next morning, Kenton shot a deer. They made a fire and went to cooking; and never did food taste more delicious. They then pursued their toilsome march, and arrived, without further adventure, at the Falls of the Ohio (now Louisville) on the thirty-third day of their escape.

Until the close of the war, he continued an active partisan. From 1784 to 1792, he was in many severe encounters with the savages, and on one occasion with Tecumseh, then a young chief rapidly rising into notice. Kenton was with Wayne, in the capacity of Major, in the early part of his campaign.

When the war was over, he settled on his farm, near Maysville, where he possessed extensive lands, and was considered one of the wealthiest men in Kentucky. His house was the abode of hospitality, and he began to enjoy the comforts of a green old age in peace and competence, but a dark cloud was lowering upon his prospects. Ignorant of the technicalities of the law, he had failed to render his title secure, and, like Boone and Clarke, he was robbed in successive lawsuits, of one piece of land after another, until he found in his declining age, himself and family reduced to poverty and want.

About the year 1802, he settled in Urbana, Ohio, where he remained



some years, and was elected brigadier-general of militia. In the war of 1812, he joined the army of Gen. Harrison, and was at the battle of the Moravian town, where he displayed his usual intrepidity. About the year 1820, he moved to the head of Mad River. A few years after, through the exertions of Judge Burnet and General Vance, a pension of twenty dollars per month was granted to him, which secured his declining age from want. He died in 1836, at which time he had been a member of the Methodist church over a quarter of a century. The frosts of more than eighty winters had fallen on his head without entirely whitening his locks, notwithstanding he had passed through more dangers, privations, perils and hair-breadth escapes than many men living or dead.

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## WASHINGTON'S FAREWELL ADDRESS.

SEPTEMBER 17, 1796.

*Friends and Fellow Citizens:*

**T**HE period for a new election of a citizen to administer the executive government of the United States being not far distant, and the time actually arrived when your thoughts must be employed in designating the person who is to be clothed with that important trust, it appears to me proper, especially as it may conduce to a more distinct expression of the public voice, that I should now apprize you of the resolution I have formed to decline being considered among the number of those out of whom the choice is to be made.

I beg you, at the same time, to do me the justice to be assured that this resolution has not been taken without a strict regard to all the considerations appertaining to the relation which binds a dutiful citizen to his country; and that, in withdrawing the tender of service, which silence in my situation might imply, I am influenced by no diminution of zeal for your future interest, no deficiency of respect for your past kindness, but am supported by a full conviction that the step is compatible with both.

The acceptance of, and continuance hitherto in, the office to which your suffrages have twice called me, have been a uniform sacrifice of inclination to the opinion of duty and to a deference for what appeared to be your desire. I constantly hoped that it would have been much earlier in my power, consistently with motives which I was not at liberty to disregard, to return to that retirement from which I had been reluctantly drawn. The strength of my inclination to do this, previous to the last election, had even led to the preparation of an address to declare it to you; but mature reflection on the then perplexed and critical posture of affairs with foreign nations, and the unanimous advice of persons entitled to my confidence, impelled me to abandon the idea. I rejoice that the state of your concerns, external as

well as internal, no longer renders the pursuit of inclination incompatible with the sentiment of duty or propriety; and am persuaded, whatever partiality may be retained for my services, that in the present circumstances of our country, you will not disapprove of my determination to retire.

The impressions with which I first undertook the arduous trust were explained on the proper occasion. In the discharge of this trust, I will only say that I have, with good intentions, contributed towards the organization and administration of the government the best exertions of which a very fallible judgment was capable. Not unconscious, in the outset, of the inferiority of my qualifications, experience in my own eyes, perhaps still more in the eyes of others, has strengthened the motives to diffidence of myself; and every day the increasing weight of years admonishes me more and more that the shade of retirement is as necessary to me as it will be welcome. Satisfied that, if any circumstances have given peculiar value to my services, they were temporary, I have the consolation to believe that, while choice and prudence invite me to quit the political scene, patriotism does not forbid it.

In looking forward to the moment which is to terminate the career of my political life, my feelings do not permit me to suspend the deep acknowledgment of that debt of gratitude which I owe to my beloved country for the many honors it has conferred upon me; still more for the steadfast confidence with which it has supported me, and for the opportunities I have thence enjoyed of manifesting my inviolable attachment by services faithful and persevering, though in usefulness unequal to my zeal. If benefits have resulted to our country from these services, let it always be remembered to your praise, and as an instructive example in our annals, that under circumstances in which the passions, agitated in every direction, were liable to mislead—amid appearances sometimes dubious—vicissitudes of fortune often discouraging—in situations in which not unfrequently want of success has countenanced the spirit of criticism—the constancy of your support was the essential prop of the efforts and a guarantee of the plans by which they were effected. Profoundly penetrated with this idea, I shall carry it with me to my grave as a strong incitement to unceasing wishes that Heaven may continue to you the choicest tokens of its beneficence—that your union and brotherly affection may be perpetual—that the free constitution which is the work of your hands may be sacredly maintained—that its administration in every department may be stamped with wisdom and virtue—that, in fine, the happiness of the people of these States, under the auspices of liberty, may be made complete by so careful a preservation and so prudent a use of this blessing as will acquire to them the glory of recommending it to the applause, the affection and adoption of every nation which is yet a stranger to it.

Here, perhaps, I ought to stop. But a solicitude for your welfare which cannot end but with my life, and the apprehension of danger natural to that solicitude, urge me, on an occasion like the present, to offer to your solemn contemplation and to recommend to your frequent review some sentiments which are the result of much reflection, of no inconsiderable observation, and which appear to me all-important to the permanency of your felicity as a people. These will be offered to you with the more freedom, as you can only see in them the disinterested warnings of a parting friend, who can possibly have no personal motive to bias his counsel. Nor can I forget, as



an encouragement to it, your indulgent reception of my sentiments on a former and not dissimilar occasion.

Interwoven as is the love of liberty with every ligament of our hearts, no recommendation of mine is necessary to fortify or confirm the attachment.

The unity of government which constitutes you one people, is also now dear to you. It is justly so; for it is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence, the support of your tranquillity at home, your peace abroad, of your safety, of your prosperity, of that very liberty which you so highly prize. But as it is easy to foresee that from different causes and from different quarters much pains will be taken, many artifices employed, to weaken in your minds the conviction of this truth—as this is the point in your political fortress against which the batteries of internal and external enemies will be most constantly and actively (though often covertly and insidiously) directed—it is of infinite moment that you should properly estimate the immense value of your national union to your collective and individual happiness; that you should cherish a cordial, habitual, and immovable attachment to it; accustoming yourselves to think and to speak of it as a palladium of your political safety and prosperity; watching for its preservation with jealous anxiety; discountenancing whatever may suggest even a suspicion that it can in any event be abandoned; and indignantly frowning upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from the rest, or to enfeeble the sacred ties which now link together the various parts.

For this you have every inducement of sympathy and interest. Citizens by birth or choice of a common country, that country has a right to concentrate your affections. The name of AMERICAN, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism more than any appellation derived from local discriminations. With slight shades of difference, you have the same religion, manners, habits, and political principles. You have, in a common cause, fought and triumphed together. The independence and liberty you possess are the work of joint councils and joint efforts, of common dangers, sufferings, and success.

But these considerations, however powerfully they address themselves to your sensibility, are greatly outweighed by those which apply more immediately to your interest. Here, every portion of our country finds the most commanding motives for carefully guarding and preserving the union of the whole.

The *north*, in an unrestrained intercourse with the *south*, protected by the equal laws of a common government, finds in the productions of the latter great additional resources of maritime and commercial enterprise, and precious materials of manufacturing industry. The *south*, in the same intercourse, benefiting by the same agency of the *north*, sees its agriculture grow and its commerce expand. Turning partly into its own channels the seamen of the *north*, it finds its particular navigation invigorated; and while it contributes in different ways to nourish and increase the general mass of the national navigation, it looks forward to the protection of a maritime strength to which itself is unequally adapted. The *east*, in like intercourse with the *west*, in the progressive improvement of interior communications by land and water, will more and more find a valuable vent for the commodities which it brings from abroad or manufactures at home. The *west* derives from the *east* supplies requisite to its growth and com-

fort; and what is perhaps of still greater consequence, it must of necessity owe the secure enjoyment of the indispensable outlets for its own productions to the weight, influence, and future maritime strength of the Atlantic side of the union, directed by an indissoluble community of interest, as one nation. Any other tenure by which the *west* can hold this essential advantage, whether derived from its own separate strength, or from an apostate and unnatural connection with any foreign power, must be intrinsically precarious.

While, then, every part of our country thus feels an immediate and particular interest in union, all the parts combined cannot fail to find in the united mass of means and efforts greater strength, greater resource, proportionably greater security from external danger, a less frequent interruption of their peace by foreign nations, and, what is of inestimable value, they must derive from union an exemption from those broils and wars between themselves which so frequently afflict neighboring countries not tied together by the same government, which their own rivalships alone would be sufficient to produce, but which opposite foreign alliances, attachments, and intrigues would stimulate and embitter. Hence, likewise, they will avoid the necessity of those overgrown military establishments which, under any form of government, are inauspicious to liberty, and which are to be regarded as particularly hostile to republican liberty. In this sense it is that your union ought to be considered as a main prop of your liberty, and that the love of the one ought to endear to you the preservation of the other.

These considerations speak a persuasive language to every reflecting and virtuous mind, and exhibit the continuance of the union as a primary object of patriotic desire. Is there a doubt whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere? Let experience solve it. To listen to mere speculation in such a case were criminal. We are authorized to hope that a proper organization of the whole, with the auxiliary agency of governments for the respective subdivisions, will afford a happy issue of the experiment. It is well worth a fair and full experiment. With such powerful and obvious motives to union, affecting all parts of our country, while experience shall not have demonstrated its impracticability, there will always be reason to distrust the patriotism of those who in any quarter may endeavor to weaken its bands.

In contemplating the causes which may disturb our union, it occurs as matter of serious concern that any ground should have been furnished for characterizing parties by geographical discriminations—*Northern* and *Southern*, *Atlantic* and *Western*; whence designing men may endeavor to excite a belief that there is a real difference of local interests and views. One of the expedients of party to acquire influence within particular districts is, to misrepresent the opinions and aims of other districts. You cannot shield yourselves too much against the jealousies and heart-burnings which spring from these misrepresentations. They tend to render alien to each other those who ought to be bound together by fraternal affection. The inhabitants of our western country have lately had a useful lesson on this head. They have seen in the negotiation by the executive, and in the unanimous ratification by the senate, of the treaty with Spain, and in the universal satisfaction at that event throughout the United States, a decisive proof how unfounded were the suspicions propagated among them of a



policy in the general government and in the Atlantic states unfriendly to their interests in regard to the Mississippi. They have been witnesses to the formation of two treaties—that with Great Britain and that with Spain—which secure to them everything they could desire, in respect to our foreign relations, toward confirming their prosperity. Will it not be their wisdom to rely for the preservation of these advantages on the union by which they were procured? Will they not henceforth be deaf to those advisers, if such there are, who would sever them from their brethren and connect them with aliens?

To the efficacy and permanency of your union, a government for the whole is indispensable. No alliances, however strict, between the parts can be an adequate substitute. They must inevitably experience the infractions and interruptions which alliances in all times have experienced. Sensible of this momentous truth, you have improved upon your first essay by the adoption of a constitution of government better calculated than your former for an intimate union and for the efficacious management of your common concerns. This government, the offspring of your own choice, uninfluenced and unawed, adopted upon full investigation and mature deliberation, completely free in its principles, in the distribution of its powers uniting security with energy, and containing within itself provision for its own amendment, has a just claim to your confidence and your support. Respect for its authority, compliance with its laws, acquiescence in its measures, are duties enjoined by the fundamental maxims of true liberty. The basis of our political system is, the right of the people to make and to alter their constitutions of government. But the constitution which at any time exists, until changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people, is sacredly obligatory upon all. The very idea of the power and the right of the people to establish government, presupposes the duty of every individual to obey the established government.

All obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, control, counteract, or awe the regular deliberations and action of the constituted authorities, are destructive of this fundamental principle, and of fatal tendency. They serve to organize faction; to give it an artificial and extraordinary force; to put in the place of the delegated will of the nation the will of party, often a small but artful and enterprising minority of the community; and according to the alternate triumphs of different parties, to make the public administration the mirror of the ill-concerted and incongruous projects of faction, rather than the organ of consistent and wholesome plans, digested by common counsels, and modified by mutual interests.

However combinations or associations of the above description may now and then answer popular ends, they are likely, in the course of time and things, to become potent engines by which cunning, ambitious, and unprincipled men will be enabled to subvert the power of the people and to usurp for themselves the reins of government, destroying afterward the very engines which have lifted them to unjust dominion.

Toward the preservation of your government and the permanency of your present happy state, it is requisite not only that you steadily discountenance irregular opposition to its acknowledged authority, but also that you resist with care the spirit of innovation upon its principles, however

specious the pretext. One method of assault may be to effect in the forms of the constitution alterations which will impair the energy of the system, and thus to undermine what cannot be directly overthrown. In all the changes to which you may be invited, remember that time and habit are at least as necessary to fix the true character of governments as of other human institutions; that experience is the surest standard by which to test the real tendency of the existing constitutions of a country; that facility in changes upon the credit of mere hypothesis and opinion exposes to perpetual change, from the endless variety of hypothesis and opinion; and remember especially, that from the efficient management of your common interests, in a country so extensive as ours, a government of as much vigor as is consistent with the perfect security of liberty is indispensable. Liberty itself will find in such a government, with powers properly distributed and adjusted, its surest guardian. It is, indeed, little else than a name, where the government is too feeble to withstand the enterprises of faction, to confine each member of society within the limits prescribed by the laws, and to maintain all in the secure and tranquil enjoyment of the rights of person and property.

I have already intimated to you the danger of parties in the state, with particular reference to the founding of them upon geographical discriminations. Let me now take a more comprehensive view, and warn you in the most solemn manner against the baneful effects of the spirit of party generally.

This spirit, unfortunately, is inseparable from our nature, having its root in the strongest passions of the human mind. It exists under different shapes in all governments, more or less stifled, controlled, or repressed; but in those of the popular form, it is seen in its greatest rankness, and is truly their worst enemy.

The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge natural to party dissension, which in different ages and countries has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself a frightful despotism. But this leads at length to a more formal and permanent despotism. The disorders and miseries which result, gradually incline the minds of men to seek security and repose in the absolute power of an individual; and sooner or later, the chief of some prevailing faction, more able or more fortunate than his competitors, turns this disposition to the purposes of his own elevation on the ruins of the public liberty.

Without looking forward to an extremity of this kind, which nevertheless ought not to be entirely out of sight, the common and continual mischiefs of the spirit of party are sufficient to make it the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage and restrain it.

It serves always to distract the public councils and enfeeble the public administration. It agitates the community with ill-founded jealousies and false alarms; kindles the animosity of one part against another; foment occasional riot and insurrection. It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which finds a facilitated access to the government itself through the channels of party passion. Thus the policy and will of one country are subjected to the policy and will of another.

There is an opinion that parties in free countries are useful checks upon the administration of the government, and serve to keep alive the spirit of liberty. This, within certain limits, is probably true; and in governments



of a monarchical cast, patriotism may look with indulgence, if not with favor, upon the spirit of party. But in those of popular character, in governments purely elective, it is a spirit not to be encouraged. From the natural tendency, it is certain there will always be enough of that spirit for every salutary purpose; and there being constant danger of excess, the effort ought to be by force of public opinion to mitigate and assuage it. A fire not to be quenched, it demands a uniform vigilance to prevent its bursting into a flame, lest, instead of warming, it should consume.

It is important, likewise, that the habits of thinking in a free country should inspire caution in those entrusted with its administration, to confine themselves within their respective constitutional spheres, avoiding, in the exercise of the powers of one department, to encroach upon another. The spirit of encroachment tends to consolidate the powers of all the departments in one, and thus to create, whatever the form of government, a real despotism. A just estimate of that love of power and proneness to abuse it which predominate in the human heart, is sufficient to satisfy us of the truth of this position. The necessity of reciprocal checks in the exercise of political power, by dividing and distributing it into different depositories, and constituting each the guardian of the public weal against invasions of the other, has been evinced by experiments ancient and modern—some of them in our country, and under our own eyes. To preserve them must be as necessary as to institute them. If, in the opinion of the people, the distribution or modification of the constitutional powers be in any particular wrong, let it be corrected by an amendment in the way in which the constitution designates. But let there be no change by usurpation; for though this in one instance may be the instrument of good, it is the customary weapon by which free governments are destroyed. The precedent must always greatly overbalance in permanent evil any partial or transient benefit which the use can at any time yield.

Of all the dispositions and habits which lead to political prosperity, religion and morality are indispensable supports. In vain would that man claim the tribute of patriotism who should labor to subvert these great pillars of human happiness—these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens. The mere politician, equally with the pious man, ought to respect and to cherish them. A volume could not trace all their connection with private and public felicity. Let it be simply asked, where is the security for property, for reputation, for life, if the sense of religious obligation desert the oaths which are the instruments of investigation in courts of justice? And let us with caution indulge the supposition that morality can be maintained without religion. Whatever may be conceded to the influence of refined education on minds of peculiar structure, reason and experience both forbid us to expect that national morality can prevail in exclusion of religious principles.

It is substantially true that virtue or morality is a necessary spring of popular government. The rule indeed extends with more or less force to every species of free government. Who that is a sincere friend to it can look with indifference upon attempts to shake the foundation of the fabric? Promote, then, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

As a very important source of strength and security, cherish public credit. One method of preserving it is to use it as sparingly as possible; avoiding occasions of expense, by cultivating peace, but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it; avoiding, likewise, the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions, in time of peace, to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burthen which we ourselves ought to bear. The execution of these maxims belongs to your representatives, but it is necessary that public opinion should co-operate. To facilitate to them the performance of their duty, it is essential you should practically bear in mind, that, towards the payment of debts, there must be revenue; that to have revenue there must be taxes; that no taxes can be devised which are not more or less inconvenient and unpleasant; that the intrinsic embarrassment, inseparable from the selection of the proper objects, (which is always a choice of difficulties) ought to be a decisive motive for a candid construction of the conduct of the Government in making it, and for a spirit of acquiescence in the measures for obtaining revenue which the public exigencies may at any time dictate.

Observe good faith and justice towards all nations; cultivate peace and harmony with all. Religion and morality enjoin this conduct; and can it be that good policy does not equally enjoin it? It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence. Who can doubt that, in the course of time and things, the fruits of such a plan would richly repay any temporary advantages which might be lost by a steady adherence to it? Can it be, that Providence has not connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue? The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature. Alas! it is rendered impossible by its vices!

In the execution of such a plan, nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies against particular nations, and passionate attachments for others, should be excluded; and that in the place of them, just and amicable feelings toward all should be cultivated. The nation which indulges toward another an habitual hatred or an habitual fondness, is in some degree a slave. It is a slave to its animosity or to its affection, either of which is sufficient to lead it astray from its duty and its interest. Antipathy in one nation against another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. Hence, frequent collisions, and obstinate, envenomed, and bloody contests. The nation, prompted by ill-will and resentment, sometimes impels to war the government contrary to the best calculations of policy. The government sometimes participates in the national propensity, and adopts through passion what reason would reject. At other times, it makes the animosity of a nation subservient to the projects of hostility, instigated by pride, ambition, and other sinister and pernicious motives. The peace often, sometimes perhaps the liberty, of nations has been the victim.

So, likewise, a passionate attachment of one nation for another produces a variety of evils. Sympathy for the favorite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest in cases where no real common



interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and the wars of the latter without adequate inducements or justification. It leads, also, to concessions to the favorite nation of privileges denied to others, which are apt doubly to injure the nation making the concessions, by unnecessarily parting with what ought to have been retained, and by exciting jealousy, ill-will and a disposition to retaliate in the parties from whom equal privileges are withheld; and it gives to ambitious, corrupt or deluded citizens, who devote themselves to the favorite nation, facility to betray or sacrifice the interests of their own country without odium, sometimes even with popularity, gilding with the appearances of a virtuous sense of obligation to a commendable deference for public opinion, or a laudable zeal for public good, the base or foolish compliances of ambition, corruption, or infatuation.

As avenues to foreign influence in innumerable ways, such attachments are particularly alarming to the truly enlightened and independent patriot. How many opportunities do they afford to tamper with domestic factions, to practise the arts of seduction, to mislead public opinion, to influence or awe the public counsels! Such an attachment of a small or weak nation, towards a great and powerful one, dooms the former to be the satellite of the latter.

Against the insidious wiles of foreign influence (I conjure you to believe me, fellow-citizens,) the jealousy of a free people ought to be *constantly* awake; since history and experience prove, that foreign influence is one of the most baneful foes of Republican Government. But that jealousy, to be useful, must be impartial; else it becomes the instrument of the very influence to be avoided, instead of a defence against it. Excessive partiality for one foreign nation, and excessive dislike for another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other. Real patriots, who may resist the intrigues of the favorite, are liable to become suspected and odious, while its tools and dupes usurp the applause and confidence of the people, to surrender their interests.

The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little *political* connexion as possible. So far as we have already formed engagements, let them be fulfilled with perfect good faith. Here let us stop.

Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none or a very remote relation. Hence she must be engaged in frequent controversies, the causes of which are essentially foreign to our concerns. Hence, therefore, it must be unwise in us, to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties, in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships or enmities.

Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a different course. If we remain one people, under an efficient government, the period is not far off, when we may defy material injury from external annoyance; when we may take such an attitude as will cause the neutrality, we may at any time resolve upon, to be scrupulously respected; when belligerent nations, under the impossibility of making acquisitions upon us, will not lightly hazard the giving us provocation; when we may choose peace or war, as our interest, guided by justice, shall counsel.

Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation? Why quit our

own to stand on foreign ground? Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humor, or caprice?

It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world; so far, I mean, as we are now at liberty to do it; for let me not be understood as capable of patronizing infidelity to existing engagements. I hold the maxim no less applicable to public than to private affairs, that honesty is always the best policy. I repeat, therefore, let those engagements be observed in their genuine sense. But, in my opinion, it is unnecessary and would be unwise to extend them.

Taking care always to keep ourselves, by suitable establishments, on a respectable defensive posture, we may safely trust to temporary alliances for extraordinary emergencies.

Harmony and a liberal intercourse with all nations are recommended by policy, humanity and interest. But even our commercial policy should hold an equal and impartial hand; neither seeking nor granting exclusive favors or preferences; consulting the natural course of things; diffusing and diversifying by gentle means the stream of commerce, but forcing nothing; establishing with powers so disposed, (in order to give trade a stable course, to define the rights of our merchants, to enable the government to support them,) conventional rules of intercourse, the best that present circumstances and natural opinion will permit, but temporary, and liable to be from time to time abandoned or varied, as experience and circumstances shall dictate; constantly keeping in view that it is folly in one nation to look for disinterested favors from another—that it must pay, with a portion of its independence, for whatever it may accept under that character—that by such acceptance it may place itself in the condition of having given equivalents for nominal favors, and yet of being reproached with ingratitude for not having given more. There can be no greater error than to expect or calculate upon real favors from nation to nation. It is an illusion which experience must cure—which a just pride ought to discard.

In offering to you, my countrymen, these counsels of an old affectionate friend, I dare not hope they will make the strong and lasting impression I could wish—that they will control the usual current of the passions, or prevent our nation from running the course which has hitherto marked the destiny of nations. But if I may even flatter myself that they may be productive of some partial benefits, some occasional good—that they may now and then recur to moderate the fury of party spirit, to warn against the mischiefs of foreign intrigue, to guard against the impostures of pretended patriotism—this hope will be a full recompense for the solicitude for your welfare by which they have been dictated.

How far in the discharge of my official duties I have been guided by the principles which have been delineated, the public records, and the other evidences of my conduct, must witness to you and to the world. To myself, the assurance of my own conscience is, that I have at least believed myself to be guided by them.

In relation to the still subsisting war in Europe, my proclamation of the 22d of April, 1793, is the index to my plan. Sanctioned by your approving voice, and by that of your representatives in both houses of Congress, the spirit of that measure has continually governed me, uninfluenced by any attempts to deter or divert me from it.



After deliberate examination, with the aid of the best lights I could obtain, I was well satisfied that our country, under all the circumstances of the case, had a right to take, and was bound in duty and interest to take, a neutral position. Having taken it, I determined, as far as should depend upon me, to maintain it with moderation, perseverance and firmness.

The considerations which respect the right to hold this conduct, it is not necessary on this occasion to detail. I will only observe that, according to my understanding of the matter, that right, so far from being denied by any of the belligerent powers, has been virtually admitted by all.

The duty of holding a neutral conduct may be inferred, without anything more, from the obligation which justice and humanity impose on every nation, in cases in which it is free to act, to maintain inviolate the relations of peace and amity toward other nations.

The inducements of interest for observing that conduct, will best be referred to your own reflections and experience. With me, a predominant motive has been, to endeavor to gain time to our country to settle and mature its yet recent institutions, and to progress without interruption, to that degree of strength and constancy which is necessary to give it, humanly speaking, the command of its own fortune.

Though in reviewing the incidents of my administration I am unconscious of intentional error, I am nevertheless too sensible of my defects not to think it probable that I may have committed many errors. Whatever they may be, I fervently beseech the Almighty to avert or mitigate the evils to which they may tend. I shall also carry with me the hope that my country will never cease to view them with indulgence, and that, after forty-five years of my life dedicated to its service with an upright zeal, the faults of incompetent abilities will be consigned to oblivion, as myself must soon be to the mansions of rest.

Relying on its kindness in this as in other things, and actuated by that fervent love toward it which is so natural to a man who views in it the native soil of himself and his progenitors for several generations, I anticipate with pleasing expectations that retreat in which I promise myself to realize without alloy, the sweet enjoyment of partaking in the midst of my fellow-citizens the benign influence of good laws under a free government—the ever-favorite object of my heart, and the happy reward, as I trust, of our mutual cares, labors and dangers.

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## THE CITY OF BOSTON.



NE of the earliest descriptions of Boston is given by Wood. "This harbor," says he, "is made by a great company of islands, whose high cliffs shoulder out the boisterous seas; yet may easily deceive any unskilful pilot; presenting many fair openings and broad sounds, which afford too shallow water for ships, though navigable, for boats and pinances. It is a safe and pleasant harbor within, having but one common and safe

entrance, and that not very broad, there scarce being room for three ships to come in board and board at a time; but being once in, there is room for the anchorage of five hundred ships. The seamen having spent their old store of wood and water, may here have fresh supplies from the adjacent islands, with good timber to repair their weather-beaten ships. Boston is two miles N. E. of Roxbury. His situation is very pleasant, being a peninsular hemmed in on the south side by the bay of Roxbury, and on the north side with Charles river, the marshes on the back side being not half a quarter of a mile over; so that a little fencing will secure their cattle from the wolves. The greatest wants are wood and meadow ground, which never were in this place, being constrained to fetch their building timber and fire wood from the islands in boats, and their hay in loyers; it being a neck, and bare of wood, they are not troubled with these great annoyances, wolves, rattlesnakes and musquetoës. These that live here upon their cattle, must be constrained to take farms in the country, or else they cannot subsist, the place being too small to contain many, and fittest for such as can trade into England, being the chief place for shipping and merchandise. This neck of land is not above four miles in compass, in form almost square, having on the south side, at one corner, a great broad hill, whereon is planted a fort, which can command any ship as she sails into the harbor within the still bay. On the north side is another hill, equal in bigness, whereon stands a windmill. To the northwest is a high mountain, with three little rising hills on the top of it, wherefore it is called Tramount. From the top of this mountain a man may overlook all the islands which lie within the bay, and desery such ships as are on the seacoast. This town, although it be neither the greatest nor the richest, yet is the most noted and frequented, being the centre of the plantations, where the monthly courts are kept. The inhabitants of this place, for their enlargement, have taken to themselves farm houses in a place called Muddy River, two miles from the town, where there is good ground, large timber, and store of marsh land and meadow. In this place they keep their swine and other cattle in the summer, whilst the corn is in the ground at Boston, and bring them to town in winter."

Josseylin, who arrived at Boston July 28th, 1663, says: "It is in longitude 315°, and 42° 30" of north latitude. The buildings are handsome, joyning one to another, as in London, with many large streets, most of them paved with pebble; in the high street towards the common, there are fair buildings, some of stone, and at the east end of the town, one among the rest, built by the shore, by Mr. Gibbs, a merchant, being a stately edifice, which it is thought will stand him in little less than £3,000 before it be fully finished. The town is not divided into parishes, yet they have three fair meeting houses or churches, which hardly suffice to receive the inhabitants and strangers that come in from all parts."

Johnson describes Boston thus: "Environed it is with brinish floods, saving one small istmos, which gives free access to the neighboring towns by land, on the south side, on the northwest and on the northeast. Two constant fairs are kept for daily trafique thereunto. The form of this town is like a heart, naturally situated for fortifications, having two hills on the frontier part thereof next the sea, the one well fortified on the superficies thereof, with a store of great artillery well mounted. The other hath a very strong battery built of whole timber, and filled with earth. At the



descent of the hill, in the extreme poynt thereof, betwixt these two strong arms, lies a cove or bay, on which the chief part of this town is built, overtopped with a third hill. All these, like overtopping towers, keep a constant watch, to see the approach of foreign dangers, being furnished with a beacon and loud babbling guns, to give notice by their redoubled echo to all the sister towns. The chief edifice of this city-like town is crowded on the sea banks, and wharfed out with great labor and cost; the buildings beautiful and large, some fairly set forth with brick tile, stone and slate, and orderly placed with semely streets, whose continual enlargement presageth some sumptuous city. The hideous thickets in this place were such that wolves and bears nurst up their young from the eyes of all beholders, in those very places where the streets are full of boys and girls, sporting up and down, with continued concourse of people. Good store of shipping is here yearly built, and some very fair ones. This town is the very mart of the land: Dutch, French and Portugalls come here to trafique."

In his "Atlas Geographus," published at London in 1717, Herman Moll gives the following account of Boston: "The capitol, Boston, is reckoned the biggest in America, except some which belong to the Spaniards. It lies on the coast, convenient for trade, defended by a strong castle in an island at the mouth of the harbor, and on the shore by forts on two or three neighboring hills which command the avenues. Here are abundance of fine buildings, both public and private, as the Court House, the Market Place, Sir William Phipp's house, &c. It has several handsome streets, and the inhabitants are reckoned about twelve thousand. They have four companies of militia, and three parish churches, besides a French church, and two meeting houses, one for church of England men and another for anabaptists. Three or four hundred ships have been loaded here in a year, with lumber, fish, beef, pork, &c., for Europe and America. Here is a market every Tuesday, and two fairs in May and October, which last three days each. 'Tis a very flourishing city, and for the beauty of its structures, and great trade, gives place to few in England."

Thus has Boston been described by the early writers. The quaintness of their style affords amusement, and it is highly gratifying and flattering to be reminded that the site of this busy and crowded city was so recently occupied as a corn field. It derived its name in honor of the Rev. John Cotton, who emigrated from Boston, in Lincolnshire, England, and this name was confirmed by act of court, September 7, 1630, O. S., from which the foundation of the town may be dated. Its original Indian name was Shawmut, and for a short time previous to its being called Boston, it was termed Trimountain. The istmos that Johnson speaks of, or neck, as it is generally denominated, is at the south part of the city, and unites it to the thriving and beautiful town of Roxbury, and forms the basis of three great avenues, viz: Washington street, the Tremont road, and Front street. Boston is also connected by two bridges with South Boston, on the south-east; with Brookline by a solid stone causeway, called the Western avenue, on the south-west; with Cambridge by two bridges on the west, and with Charlestown by two bridges on the north.

The means of intercommunication between the town and country are abundant, there being besides those just enumerated, the Providence, the Worcester, and the Lowell Railroads, the Winnisimmet ferry to Chelsea, and the ferry to Noddle's Island, now called East Boston; upon both of

which steamboats for the conveyance of horses, carriages, merchandise and passengers, are constantly plying. The great Eastern railway, also, whose depot is to be at East Boston, is now in a course of construction, and when it shall have been completed, Boston will be the grand focal centre of four of the finest railways in North America. The surface of the peninsula upon which the city is built, swells into three eminences, viz: Copp's Hill, Fort Hill and Beacon Hill. Copp's Hill received its name from its owner, a Mr. Copp, who was a shoemaker, and one of the elders in Dr. Mather's church. It rises rather abruptly from a point at the northern extremity of the town, about seventy-five feet above high water, and upon its summit is located one of the oldest burying grounds in the city. From this spot the British cannonaded Charlestown in 1775, at the memorable battle of Bunker hill.

Fort Hill is situated on the eastern border of the city, directly opposite the harbor, and is elevated about eighty feet above the level of the sea. First called Corn Hill, it received its present name from a fort constructed on the top of it in 1632, in the building of which the people of Roxbury, Charlestown and Dorchester worked in rotation. Fort Hill is rendered famous by its having been a temporary asylum for Sir Edmund Andros, who repaired the citadel in the Boston revolution of 1689, where he and his accomplices were taken prisoners by the inhabitants, for tyranny and oppression. The old fort was demolished many years since, and no remains are now to be seen of the temporary works erected on its site during the revolutionary war. The summit of the hill has been leveled, and formed into a beautiful circular grass plat, with graveled walks, and ornamented with forest trees.

Beacon Hill is the most elevated spot within the Peninsula—being one hundred and ten feet above high water. It is on the north-western side of the common, and affords an extensive prospect of the harbor, outer bay, and surrounding country. On this hill there were formerly three distinct eminences. The circumstance of these hills exhibiting the appearance of a mountain, when viewed by the first settlers, from the comparatively low grounds of Charlestown, probably led, as is observed in the Picture of Boston, to their calling the peninsula *Tri-mountain*; and from this is derived *Tremont*, a name which has been bestowed upon one of the finest streets in the city, upon one of the best constructed and best regulated theatres, and upon one of the most celebrated public houses in the country. On the summit of Beacon Hill was anciently fixed a *beacon*, whence the eminence has its name. The design of it was, by igniting a barrel of tar on the top of it, to alarm the country in case of invasion. This beacon was prostrated by the wind in 1789. In the year following, there was erected on the same place, a plain column of the Doric order, raised on its proper pedestal, and substantially built of brick and stone. On each square of the column were inscriptions commemorative of the leading events of the American Revolution. Incrusted with cement, it had at the top a large wooden eagle, gilt, and supporting the American arms. The diameter of the column was four feet; the height, including the eagle, sixty feet: and the base was encompassed with rails, on the front of which were benches, for the accommodation of those who ascended the hill.

This monument was taken down in 1810, and the four slabs containing the inscriptions commemorative of the events of the Revolution, are now



to be seen in a recess of the State House, and the eagle is perched inside over the main entrance, or door in front. Beacon Hill was soon after leveled, and elegant houses now occupy the place of the 'beacon, column, and eagle.' A writer has remarked, that 'Boston is not less distinguished for her *three* hills, than Rome for her *seven*.'

The harbor of Boston extends from Nantasket to the city, and spreads from Chelsea and Nahant to Hingham, containing about seventy-five square miles. It is bespangled with upwards of a hundred islands and rocks, and receives the waters from the Mystic, Charles, Neponset, and Manatticut rivers, with several other small streams. The most noted islands are Governor's island, and Castle island: the former is known also by the name of Fort Warren, and the latter by that of Fort Independence. They lie about two and a half miles easterly from the city, dividing the inner from the outer harbor, about one mile distant from each other; and the only channel for large ships passes between them. Bell Isle is to the north of Boston, on the Chelsea coast, with which it is connected by a bridge. Deer island, about five miles east, and Long island about five and a half east by south, commands the outer harbor. Thompson and Spectacle islands lie south-easterly towards Squantum, and within the parallel of Long island. Rainsford or Hospital island is about one mile south-easterly from Long island. Gallop, George, and Lovel's islands lie east by south from seven to eight miles from Boston, and between Broad Sound and Nantasket road. Pethicks' island lies south of Hingham bay. The Light-house island, on which the light-house stands, lies south, sixty-nine degrees east, nine miles distant from the city. The Brewsters, Calf island, Greene island, &c., lie northerly from the light-house, forming a chain of islands, rocks, and ledges, for about three miles to the Graves rocks, between which no ships attempt to pass. These numerous, and irregularly formed and situated islands add not a little to the beautiful appearance of the bay; and many of them are much frequented by pleasure parties in the season of summer. The water of the harbor is so deep that more than five hundred ships of the largest class can safely ride at anchor in it; while, as Wood stated nearly two hundred years ago, the entrance is so narrow as scarcely two admit two ships abreast. Boston enjoys uncommon advantages for commerce. She possesses more vessels than any other city in the United States, except New York, the amount of her shipping being about 200,000 tons. The value of her yearly imports is about \$15,000,000, and of her exports \$10,000,000. The wharves and piers are numerous and extensive, provided with large and substantial stores and warehouses, and with every convenience for the mooring and securing of ships. Her intercourse with foreign ports as well as those of her own continent, is becoming every year more extended and profitable. 'Her merchants are princes,' and her mechanics and manufacturers are among the most enterprising, liberal, and public spirited of the land. The city exhibits a very picturesque and imposing view when approached from the ocean; and, as Moll informs us, 'for the beauty of its structures, and great trade, gives place to few in England.'

The common, containing fifty acres, is planted with upwards of five hundred trees, and is surrounded with a beautiful and substantial iron fence, the cost of which was 82,500 dollars.

The town was governed by nine selectmen, annually chosen by the peo-

ple till 1822, when it was incorporated into a city, and is now governed by a mayor, eight aldermen, and forty-eight common councilmen, elected by the citizens in the month of December of each year.

Boston is the seat of several literary and scientific institutions, among which are the following. The Atheneum, with a library comprising 29,000 volumes of very valuable books, the Boston Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, Young Men's Association for the Promotion of Literature and Science, Boston Lyceum, Hanover Lyceum, Handel and Haydn Society, and Boston Academy of Music.

Boston has been called the 'literary emporium of the western world,' and perhaps justly, for it is a fact that a greater portion of men distinguished for acquisitions of this nature have arisen in this city and vicinity, than in any other part of the United States.

The means of diffusing education through all ranks of society, at the public expense, were early provided in Boston, as well as throughout the commonwealth of Massachusetts. This has always been done by means of public schools, which have been established by law for the instruction of the children of all classes of people, in the rudiments of useful knowledge. It has always been considered desirable that the whole population of the city should be thoroughly educated, in order that public affairs, being directed by public opinion, might be managed intelligently by the whole body of the people, that the public might avail themselves of the services of men of the greatest talents, and that the advantages which the community are enabled to offer to individuals might be equally accessible to the children of all classes.

In the public schools, the children of the rich, the middling classes, and the poor, meet together, and early learn that, though wealth has some peculiar advantages, it is not the only nor the most essential requisite for public favor, or for success in life; an important lesson which they would learn nowhere else. The primary schools for young children, the grammar and writing schools for those farther advanced, the English high school for boys who wish to acquire a thorough English education, including the mathematics and philosophy, and the Latin school for such as wish to acquire a knowledge of the learned languages, or prepare for a collegiate course, are open and free alike to all who have the requisite qualifications of age and acquirements, whatever may be their rank in life. The instructors in these schools are men of education and experience, and are well paid, and highly esteemed by their fellow citizens.

The number of Grammar and High schools is twenty-four, having in the aggregate about 10,000 scholars; and the primary schools, 188 in number, have about 8,000 scholars.

There always have been, and still are, a considerable number of private schools in the city, of various descriptions and grades, supported by individual subscriptions. Some of these are highly respectable, but it is not known that they offer advantages superior to the public free schools. The number of children and youth in constant attendance at the schools in Boston may be fairly estimated at 20,000.

An examination of the public schools takes place annually, on which occasion the principal officers of the city charged with the care of the schools, the instructors, distinguished pupils, and invited guests, partake of a public dinner. On one of these occasions a gentleman from Kentucky



gave as a toast, the following sentiment, perhaps not less just than complimentary. "Boston—the city of schools—and the school for cities."

The charitable, benevolent, and humane institutions, are the Asylum for the Blind, the Eye and Ear Infirmary, the Lying-in-Hospital, Provident Institution for Savings, Savings Bank for Seamen, Howard Benevolent Society, Female Orphan Asylum, Penitent Females' Refuge, Seamen's Friend Society, Seamen's Aid Society, Fatherless and Widow's Society, Children's Friend Society, Society for the Prevention of Pauperism, Asylum and Farm School for Indigent Boys, and various other societies and associations which dispense the charities of the benevolent with a liberal hand, and speak peace and comfort to the unfortunate and the afflicted.

Among the public buildings are the State House, City Hall, Court House, Jail, Faneuil Hall, Quincy Market, Hospital, Masonic Temple, House of Industry, and House of Reformation. There are about one hundred churches, viz., thirty-one for Congregationalists, eleven for Baptists, ten for Episcopalians, twelve for Methodists, six for Universalists, ten for Roman Catholics, besides some others for Free-Will Baptists, Christians, Friends, and Swedenborgians.

There were in July, 1851, thirty Banks established in the city of Boston with an aggregate capital of \$22,900,000. Several others have since been chartered.

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## THE BOSTON TEA PARTY.

**I**N the year 1773, the British government, after a long series of efforts to establish the principle of taxation in the American Provinces, attempted to secure its object through the medium of the East India Company. There were then in the warehouses of that body upwards of seventeen million pounds of tea, in addition to which quantity, the importations of the current year were expected to be larger than usual. By an act of Parliament, which had been framed with a view to the circumstances of the period, the East India Company, on exportation of their superfluous teas to America, were to be allowed a drawback to the full amount of the English duties. The Company bound itself to pay the duty of three-pence per pound, which Parliament had laid on teas imported into the Colonies. In accordance with the act of Parliament, the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury gave license for the exportation of six hundred thousand pounds of tea; which quantity was to be distributed to various ports along the American coast. So soon as the project became known, applications were made to the directors of the East India Company, by a number of merchants in the colonial trade, soliciting a share of what they conceived would be a very profitable business. Some recommended the establishment of a branch of the East India House in a central port of America, whence minor ramifications might be extended all over the continent. The plan finally adopted was, to bestow the agency on merchants of good repute in

the Colonies, who could give satisfactory security, or obtain the guaranty of London houses. Among these, Richard Clarke and sons, Benjamin Faneuil and Joshua Winslow, were appointed agents for the disposal of the tea in Boston.

The East India Company, and those who solicited or accepted an agency in this affair, considered it merely in a commercial light. They appear not to have understood or felt, that the Americans would object to the proposed measure, on the ground of abstract principle. Whatever doubt was entertained, respecting the profitable nature of the concern, arose from the fact, that large quantities of tea were smuggled from Holland, and might possibly be bought lower than the Company could afford to put their own, when burdened with the colonial duty. It was hoped, however, that the English exporters might be able to undersell the Dutch, even with the duties annexed, or at least to come so near their prices, that the difference would not compensate the risk of smuggling. But no sooner did the news reach the Colonies, than an opposition sprung up, on grounds which had nothing to do with the high or low price of the commodity. The people at once penetrated the design of the British ministry, and saw that, if successful, it would leave them without a plea against any extent of taxation that Parliament, might choose to inflict. In anticipation of the arrival of the tea-ships, public meetings were called at several sea-ports, resolutions were passed to prevent the landing of the cargoes, and the consignees were enjoined to refuse their agency in the disposal of them.

Boston, especially, which had always led their colonial defence against the ministerial aggressions, here again took a prominent part. Soon after the names of the agents were made known, Mr. Richard Clarke and his son were roused from sleep, in the dead of night, by a knocking at their door. Looking forth from their window, they saw in the courtyard, where the moon shone very bright, the figures of two men, one of whom told the consignees, that he had brought them a letter from the country. A servant received it from these midnight messengers. It proved to be a formal summons, in the name of the Freemen of Massachusetts, commanding Richard Clarke and son to appear at Liberty Tree, at high noon on the ensuing Wednesday, then and there to make public surrender of their trust, as agents for the disposal of the tea. A letter in the same terms was likewise delivered to each of the other consignees. The next morning, printed notifications were seen at all the corners and public places, calling on the Freemen of the Province to assemble at Liberty Tree, and witness the public resignation of the agents. At eleven o'clock in the forenoon of the appointed day, the bells of all the churches began to ring, and continued their peal for a full hour; while the town crier went from street to street, summoning the people to the place of meeting. A multitude accordingly assembled, among whom were the selectmen of the town. The consignees, however, shut themselves into one of their warehouses, and would neither obey the summons, nor give any satisfactory reply to a committee, who were sent to them from the Freemen at Liberty Tree. Various other meetings were held, and such a spirit manifested, as convinced the agents, that the patronage of the powerful East India Company ought by no means to have been solicited as a favor but rather deprecated as a calamity. They now wrote to London expressing their doubts whether the commission could be executed.



All these proceedings were anterior to the arrival of the tea. The first of the vessels entered the harbor of Boston on Sunday, the twenty-eighth of November, and was followed in the course of the same week, by two others. On the twenty-ninth, a meeting was convoked at Faneuil Hall, and adjourned on account of the overflowing multitude to the Old South Church, where the consignees were required to appear, and pledge themselves to send back the ships, without payment of the duties which had accrued by their entry at the port. These demands were not complied with. A committee appointed by the meeting took possession of the ships and moored them at Griffin's wharf, in charge of a volunteer watch, consisted of a captain and twenty-five men. If molested in the day time, they were to give notice by ringing the bells; if at night, by tolling them. Six persons were appointed to raise the surrounding country, in case the government should seek assistance from the troops at Castle William, or the vessels of war in the harbor. The meeting of Monday was continued by adjournment to Tuesday, the thirtieth, where Mr. Sheriff Greenleaf read a proclamation from the Governor, requiring the people to disperse, at their utmost peril. This produced no other effect than a general hiss. A pledge was exacted from Mr. Rotch, the owner of one or more of the vessels, that the tea should be returned to England in the same bottom in which it came. Mr. Rotch, after protesting against the people's proceedings, yielded to what he considered the necessity of the case, and gave the required promise. After the adjournment of this meeting, nothing of a decisive nature took place, till about the middle of the ensuing month. Mr. Rotch, who had been observed to be dilatory in his preparations for sending back the vessels, was then again summoned before a great assembly at the Old South Church, and enjoined forthwith to demand a clearance from the Collector of Customs. The result was to be communicated to the people the next day at ten o'clock, till which hour the meeting was adjourned. It was now necessary that prompt measures should be adopted, because, were the duties to remain unpaid beyond twenty days from the arrival of the ships, the Collector would be authorized to seize their cargoes.

At the appointed hour, on Thursday, the sixteenth of December, Mr. Rotch made his appearance at the Old South, and declared himself unable to obtain a clearance, until all the merchandise liable to duty should be landed. He was directed to enter a formal protest against the Collector of Customs, and then demand a passport from the Governor. To await the success of this latter application, the people adjourned till three o'clock of the same day.

At this crisis of our narrative, we may take a momentary glance at the various parties, whose feelings or interests were affected by the circumstances which we have related. The affair had now arrived at that point, where the whole weight of official responsibility was made to press upon Governor Hutchinson. His situation must have been a most irksome one. He was of course a loyalist, a partisan of the ministry in its most offensive measures, and had already suffered, as well as acted, in its behalf. But he was also a New England man, and possessed the sentiments proper to his birth. The tone of his writings proves him to have been deeply imbued with native patriotism, which, had he come to office in earlier times, when there was yet no conflict between the power of Britain and the rights of the Colonies, would have made him as good and just a ruler as New England ever had.

A writer of his country's annals, he must have shrunk from the idea, that future historians would portray him as one of those few colonial Britons, who had shown themselves more English than American. It was undoubtedly with inward trouble, that Governor Hutchinson made his choice between the will of his king and the interests of his country, and with painful reluctance that he hardened his heart to incur the whole odium of ministerial tyranny. His adherents were scarcely more at ease. The favorite Councillors, the officers under the Crown, the Judges, the tory gentlemen; all, in short, who seemed to have the power of the realm on their side, were now cowering beneath the acknowledged supremacy of the people. No advocate of despotism dared speak above his breath; none but the aristocratic dames, who, sipping a decoction of the forbidden herb from diminutive china cups, and snuffing up its exquisite fragrance, declaimed more bitterly against the disloyal mob, with every snuff and every sip.

In estimating the situation of the provincial metropolis, we must not forget the military and naval force, which was as completely at the Governor's command, as if the armed ships had been moored within pistol-shot of Griffin's wharf, and the troops quartered in the churches, or their tents pitched upon the Common. The officers and men, feeling no interest in the country which they were sent to overawe, would smile at the rising tumult of affairs, and nourish, perhaps, an idle hope, that the audacity of the people might not be quelled without the glitter of bayonets in the streets, and at least a volley over their heads. Looking downward from their vessels and the ramparts of Castle William, they ridiculed alike the menaces of the mob, and the imbecility of the Governor for not crushing the sedition with a word and a blow.

We cannot better describe the circumstances of the people, than by resuming our narrative from the point at which we left it. The Freemen of Massachusetts, in public assembly, at the Old South, were awaiting the arrival of Mr. Rotch, with the Governor's ultimate decision on their demands. Would that we might picture them, as if we leaned from the gallery of the sacred edifice, looking down upon a dense mass of visages, old and young, all expressive of the stern determination which made but one heart throughout that great multitude! Perhaps, standing so much nearer to our Puritan forefathers than we do, they had a more imposing mien than their descendants will ever wear. The old original spirit was potent within them. Had it been otherwise, they could not, for a series of years, have braved the threats, and been neither depressed or maddened by the injustice of Britain, and at length been forced into an attitude of defiance by the efforts of her strong arm to bend them upon their knees. In that attitude—not upon their knees, but offering a bold front to the oppressor—we find them now.

Mr. Rotch had been directed to reappear before the assembly at three o'clock. At that hour, the people had again met, expecting the Governor's reply. If favorable, it would have given a truce to the Colonial troubles. On the other hand, there was probably a general understanding, that, should their demands be negatived, the Freemen were to enforce their will by some immediate act. Wild spirits were among them, doubtless, whom one inflammatory word of their leaders might have excited to burn the vessels at the wharf. But it was the noble characteristic of all the movements of our forefathers, by which they wrought out our freedom, that,



possessing the energy of popular action, they yet secured the result of sage and deliberate councils. The will of the wisest among the people was universally diffused, and became the people's will. There was an example of this truth, even on the verge of the meditated act of violence. As the afternoon declined, and the early December evening began to shed its gloom within the meeting-house, there were murmurs at the delay of Mr. Rotch, who had already long exceeded the time allotted for his absence. The leading men restrained the impatience of the people, by representing the propriety of doing all in their power to send back the tea to England, nor proceeding to a more violent measure, till it should undeniably be the sole alternative. Light being brought, an address from Josiah Quincy filled up the interval of a third hour. At last, after a course of patient determination, which, had it been rightly interpreted, might alone have taught the ministry to despair of subduing such a people, there went a whisper that Mr. Rotch was crossing the threshold. It was a moment of breathless interest. Would the Governor yield? Then might the British king have had one other loyal shout from his New England subjects, such as greeted his ancestors of the Hanover line, when it was proclaimed in Boston, that they had elbowed the Stuarts from their throne!

But that huzza was never to be heard again—"Long live King George" was a cry of departed years—no echo there would answer it. Mr. Rotch announced, as Governor Hutchinson's ultimate reply, that, for the honor of the king, the vessels would not be permitted to leave the port, without a regular settlement of the Custom-house dues.

It was a singular proof of the just estimation in which Mr. Rotch held this assembly, that he dared to appear in the midst of it, with so utter and decisive a negative to its demands. Nothing of injury or insult was offered him. But the dead hush that pervaded the multitude after hearing the Governor's resolve, was suddenly broken by what seemed an Indian war-cry from the gallery. Thitherward all raised their eyes, and perceived a figure in the garb of the old forest chiefs, who had not then been so long banished from their ancient haunts, but that a solitary survivor might have found his way into the church. The signal shout was immediately responded to by twenty voices in the street. That loud, wild cry of a departed race must have pealed ominously in the ears of the ministerial party, as if the unnatural calmness of the mob were at length flung away, and savage violence were now to rush madly through the town. By the people, such a signal appears to have been expected. No sooner was it given, than they sallied forth, and made their way towards the tea-ships with continually increasing numbers, so that the wharves were blackened with the multitude.

Already, when the crowd reached the spot, a score of Indian figures were at work aboard the vessels, heaving up the tea-chests from the holds, tearing off the lids, and scattering their precious contents on the tide. But it was the people's deed; they had all a part in it; for they kept watch while their champions wrought, and presented an impenetrable bulwark against disturbance on the landward side. Three hours were thus employed, under the batteries of the armed vessels, and within cannon-shot of Castle William without so much as a finger lifted in opposition. In this passive acquiescence, the government chose the wisest part. Had the troops been landed, the green at Lexington would not have been hallowed with the first blood of the Revolution; and perhaps another royal Governor might have

been sent to prison, by the same law of the people's will that imposed such a sentence on Sir Edmund Andros.

Thus were the tea-ships emptied. Their rich cargoes floated to and fro upon the tide, or lay mingled with the sea-weed at the bottom of the harbor. Having done their work, the Indian figures vanished, and the crowd, with a thrill, as if ghosts had walked among them, asked whither they had gone, and who those bold men were. The generations that have followed since this famous deed was done, have still asked who they were, and had no answer. Perhaps it is better that it should be so—that the actors in the scene should sleep without their fame—or glide dimly through a tale of wild, romantic mystery. We will not strive to wipe away the war-paint, nor remove the Indian robe and feathery crest, and show what features of the Renowned were hid beneath—what shapes were in that garb, of men who afterwards rode leaders in the battle-field—or became the people's chosen rulers, when Britain had sullenly left our land to its freedom. But, of those whom the world calls illustrious, there are few whose marble monuments bear such a proud inscription, as would the humblest grave-stone, with only this simple legend under the dead man's name—**HE WAS OF THE BOSTON TEA-PARTY!**

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## DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE,

JULY 4TH, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA  
IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

**W**HEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitled them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are



accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world :—

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained ; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected ; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise—the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states—for that purpose obstructing the laws of naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws—giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation.

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us ;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states ;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world ;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the *forms* of our governments;

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts, by their legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connexions and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states



may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed and signed by the following members:

NEW HAMPSHIRE.  
JOSIAH BARTLETT,  
WILLIAM WHIPPLE,  
MATTHEW THORNTON.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.  
SAMUEL ADAMS,  
JOHN ADAMS,  
ROBERT TREAT PAINE,  
ELBRIDGE GERRY.

RHODE ISLAND.  
STEPHEN HOPKINS,  
WILLIAM ELLERY.

CONNECTICUT.  
ROGER SHERMAN,  
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,  
WILLIAM WILLIAMS,  
OLIVER WOLCOTT.

NEW YORK.  
WILLIAM FLOYD,  
PHILIP LIVINGSTON,  
FRANCIS LEWIS,  
LEWIS MORRIS.

NEW JERSEY.  
RICHARD STOCKTON,  
JOHN WITHERSPOON,  
FRANCIS HOPKINSON,  
JOHN HART,  
ABRAHAM CLARK.

PENNSYLVANIA.  
ROBERT MORRIS,  
BENJAMIN RUSH,  
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,  
JOHN MORTON,  
GEORGE CLYMER,  
JAMES SMITH,  
GEORGE TAYLOR,  
JAMES WILSON,  
GEORGE ROSS.

DELAWARE.  
CÆSAR RODNEY,  
GEORGE READ,  
THOMAS M'KEAN.

MARYLAND.  
SAMUEL CHASE,  
WILLIAM PACA,

JOHN HANCOCK.

THOMAS STONE,  
CHARLES CARROLL, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.  
GEORGE WYTHE,  
RICHARD HENRY LEE,  
THOMAS JEFFERSON,  
BENJAMIN HARRISON,  
THOMAS NELSON, JR.,  
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE,  
CARTER BRAXTON.

NORTH CAROLINA  
WILLIAM HOOPER,  
JOSEPH HEWES,  
JOHN PENN.

SOUTH CAROLINA.  
EDWARD RUTLEDGE,  
THOMAS HEYWARD, JR.,  
THOMAS LYNCH, JR.,  
ARTHUR MIDDLETON

GEORGIA.  
BUTTON GWINNETT,  
LYMAN HALL,  
GEORGE WALTON.

## ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION.

TO ALL TO WHOM THESE PRESENTS SHALL COME, WE, THE UNDERSIGNED, DELEGATES OF THE STATES AFFIXED TO OUR NAMES, SEND GREETING.

**W**HEREAS, the delegates of the United States of America in Congress assembled did, on the fifteenth day of November, in year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven, and in the second year of the independence of America, agree to certain articles of confederation and perpetual union between the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, in the words following, viz:

*Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia.*

ARTICLE 1. The style of this confederacy shall be, "The United States of America."

ART. 2. Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom and independence, and every power, jurisdiction and right which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled.

ART. 3. The said States hereby severally enter into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare; binding themselves to assist each other against all force offered to, or attacks made upon them, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, trade, or any other pretence whatever.

ART. 4. The better to secure and perpetuate mutual friendship and intercourse among the people of the different States in this Union, the free inhabitants of each of these States—paupers, vagabonds and fugitives from justice, excepted—shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of free citizens in the several States; and the people of each State shall have free ingress and egress to and from any other State, and shall enjoy therein all the privileges of trade and commerce, subject to the same duties, impositions and restrictions, as the inhabitants thereof respectively, provided that such restrictions shall not extend so far as to prevent the removal of property imported into any State, to any other State of which the owner is an inhabitant; provided, also, that no imposition, duties or restriction, shall be laid by any State on the property of the United States, or either of them.

If any person guilty of, or charged with treason, felony, or other high misdemeanor, in any State, shall flee from justice, and be found in any of the United States, he shall, upon demand of the Governor or executive power of the State from which he fled, be delivered up and removed to the State having jurisdiction of his offence.

Full faith and credit shall be given in each of these States to the records, acts and judicial proceedings of the courts and magistrates of every other State.

ART. 5. For the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, delegates shall be annually appointed in such manner as the Legislature of each State shall direct, to meet in Congress on the first Monday in November, in every year, with a power reserved to each State to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year.

No State shall be represented in Congress by less than two, nor by more than seven members; and no person shall be capable of being a delegate for more than three years in any term of six years; nor shall any person, being a delegate, be capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or another for his benefit, receives any salary, fees, or emoluments of any kind.

Each State shall maintain its own delegates in a meeting of the States, and while they act as members of the committee of the States.

In determining questions in the United States in Congress assembled, each State shall have one vote.

Freedom of speech and debate in Congress shall not be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Congress; and the members of Congress shall be protected in their persons from arrests and imprisonments during the time of their going to and from, and attendance on Congress, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace.

ART. 6. No State, without the consent of the United States, in Congress assembled, shall send any embassy to, or receive any embassy from, or enter into any conference, agreement, alliance or treaty with any king,



may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

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prince or State; nor shall any person holding any office of profit or trust under the United States, or any of them, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State; nor shall the United States in Congress assembled, or any of them, grant any title of nobility.

No two or more States shall enter into any treaty, confederation or alliance whatever, between them, without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, specifying accurately the purposes for which the same is to be entered into, and how long it shall continue.

No State shall lay any imposts or duties which may interfere with any stipulations in treaties entered into by the United States in Congress assembled, with any king, prince or State, in pursuance of any treaties already proposed by Congress to the courts of France and Spain.

No vessel-of-war shall be kept up in time of peace by any State, except such number only as shall be deemed necessary by the United States in Congress assembled, for the defence of such State or its trade; nor shall any body of forces be kept up by any State in time of peace, except such number only as in the judgment of the United States in Congress assembled, shall be deemed requisite to garrison the forts necessary for the defence of such State; but every State shall always keep up a well regulated and disciplined militia, sufficiently armed and accoutred, and shall provide and have constantly ready for use, in public stores, a due number of field-pieces and tents, and a proper quantity of arms, ammunition and camp equipage.

No State shall engage in any war without the consent of the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be actually invaded by enemies, or shall have received certain advice of a resolution being formed by some nation of Indians to invade such State, and the danger is so imminent as not to admit of a delay till the United States in Congress assembled can be consulted; nor shall any State grant commissions to any ships or vessels-of-war, nor letters of marque or reprisal, except it be after a declaration of war by the United States in Congress assembled, and then only against the kingdom or State, and the subjects thereof, against which war has been so declared, and under such regulations as shall be established by the United States in Congress assembled, unless such State be infested by pirates, in which case vessels-of-war may be fitted out for that occasion, and kept so long as the danger shall continue, or until the United States in Congress assembled shall determine otherwise.

ART. 7. When land forces are raised by any State for the common defence, all officers of, or under the rank of colonel, shall be appointed by the Legislature of each State respectively, by whom such forces shall be raised, or in such manner as such State shall direct, and all vacancies shall be filled up by the State which first made the appointment.

ART. 8. All charges of war, and all other expenses that shall be incurred for the common defence or general welfare, and allowed by the United States in Congress assembled, shall be defrayed out of a common treasury, which shall be supplied by the several States in proportion to the value of all land within each State granted to or surveyed for any person, as such land and the buildings and improvements thereon shall be estimated according to such mode as the United States in Congress assembled shall from time to time direct and appoint.

The taxes for paying that proportion shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the Legislatures of the several States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled.

ART. 9. The United States in Congress assembled shall have the sole and exclusive right and power of determining on peace and war, except in the cases mentioned in the sixth article—of sending and receiving ambassadors—entering into treaties and alliances; provided, that no treaty of commerce shall be made whereby the legislative power of the respective States shall be restrained from imposing such imposts and duties on foreigners as their own people are subjected to, or from prohibiting the exportation or importation of any species of goods or commodities whatsoever—of establishing rules for deciding in all cases, what captures on land or water shall be legal, and in what manner prizes taken by land or naval forces in the service of the United States shall be divided or appropriated—of granting letters of marque and reprisal in times of peace—appointing courts for the trial of piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and establishing courts for receiving and determining finally appeals in all cases of captures; provided that no member of Congress shall be appointed a judge of any of the said courts.

The United States in Congress assembled shall also be the last resort on appeal in all disputes and differences now subsisting or that hereafter may arise between two or more States concerning boundary, jurisdiction, or any other cause whatever; which authority shall always be exercised in the manner following: whenever the legislative or executive authority or lawful agent of any State in controversy with another, shall present a petition to Congress, stating the matter in question, and praying for a hearing, notice thereof shall be given, by order of Congress, to the legislative or executive authority of the other State in controversy, and a day assigned for the appearance of the parties, by their lawful agents, who shall then be directed to appoint by joint consent commissioners or judges to constitute a court for hearing and determining the matter in question; but if they can not agree, Congress shall name three persons out of each of the United States, and from the list of such persons each party shall alternately strike out one, the petitioners beginning, until the number shall be reduced to thirteen; and from that number not less than seven, nor more than nine names, as Congress shall direct, shall, in the presence of Congress, be drawn out by lot; and the persons whose names shall be so drawn, or any five of them, shall be commissioners or judges, to hear and finally determine the controversy, so always as a major part of the judges, who shall hear the cause, shall agree in the determination; and if either party shall neglect to attend at the day appointed, without showing reasons which Congress shall judge sufficient, or being present, shall refuse to strike, the Congress shall proceed to nominate three persons out of each State, and the Secretary of Congress shall strike in behalf of such party absent or refusing; and the judgment and sentence of the court to be appointed in the manner before prescribed, shall be final and conclusive; and if any of the parties shall refuse to submit to the authority of such court, or to appear, or defend their claim or cause, the court shall nevertheless proceed to pronounce sentence or judgment, which shall in like manner be final and decisive, the judgment or sentence, and other proceedings, being in either case transmitted to Congress, and lodged among the



acts of Congress, for the security of the parties concerned; provided, that every commissioner, before he sits in judgment, shall take an oath, to be administered by one of the judges of the supreme or superior court of the State where the cause shall be tried, "well and truly to hear and determine the matter in question, according to the best of his judgment, without favor, affection, or hope of reward;" provided also, that no State shall be deprived of territory for the benefit of the United States.

All controversies concerning the private right of soil, claimed under different grants of two or more States, whose jurisdiction, as they may respect such lands, and the States which passed such grants are adjusted, the said grants, or either of them, being at the same time claimed to have originated antecedent to such settlement of jurisdiction, shall, on the petition of either party to the Congress of the United States, be finally determined, as near as may be, in the same manner as is before prescribed for deciding disputes respecting territorial jurisdiction between different States.

The United States in Congress assembled shall also have the sole and exclusive right and power of regulating the alloy and value of coin struck by their own authority, or by that of the respective States—fixing the standard of weights and measures throughout the United States—regulating the trade, and managing all affairs with the Indians not members of any of the States; provided, that the legislative right of any State within its own limits, be not infringed or violated—establishing and regulating post offices from one State to another, throughout all the United States, and exacting such postage on the papers passing through the same, as may be requisite to defray the expenses of the said office—appointing all officers of the land forces in the service of the United States, excepting regimental officers—appointing all the officers of the naval forces, and commissioning all officers whatever, in the service of the United States—making rules for the government and regulation of the said land and naval forces, and directing their operations.

The United States in Congress assembled shall have authority to appoint a committee to sit in the recess of Congress, to be denominated "a committee of the States," and to consist of one delegate from each State; and to appoint such other committees and civil officers as may be necessary for managing the general affairs of the United States, under their direction; to appoint one of their number to preside, provided that no person be allowed to serve in the office of president more than one year in any term of three years; to ascertain the necessary sums of money to be raised for the service of the United States, and to appropriate and apply the same for defraying the public expenses; to borrow money or emit bills on the credit of the United States, transmitting every half year to the respective States an account of the sums of money so borrowed or emitted; to build and equip a navy; to agree upon the number of land forces, and to make requisitions from each State for its quota, in proportion to the number of white inhabitants in such State; which requisition shall be binding, and thereupon the Legislature of each State shall appoint the regimental officers, raise the men, and clothe, arm and equip them, in a soldier-like manner, at the expense of the United States; and the officers and men so clothed, armed and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled; but if the United States in Congress assembled shall, on consideration of

circumstances, judge proper that any State should not raise men, or should raise a smaller number than its quota, and that any other State should raise a greater number of men than the quota thereof, such extra number shall be raised, officered, clothed, armed and equipped, in the same manner as the quota of such State, unless the Legislature of such State shall judge that such extra number can not safely be spared out of the same; in which case they shall raise, officer, clothe, arm and equip as many of such extra number as they judge can be safely spared. And the officers and men so clothed, armed and equipped, shall march to the place appointed, and within the time agreed on by the United States in Congress assembled.

The United States in Congress assembled shall never engage in a war, nor grant letters of marque and reprisal in time of peace, nor enter into any treaties or alliances, nor coin money, nor regulate the value thereof, nor ascertain the sums and expenses necessary for the defence and welfare of the United States, or any of them, nor emit bills, nor borrow money on the credit of the United States, nor appropriate money, nor agree upon the number of vessels-of-war to be built or purchased, or the number of land or sea forces to be raised, nor appoint a commander-in-chief of the army or navy, unless nine States assent to the same; nor shall a question on any other point, except for adjourning from day to day, be determined, unless by the votes of a majority of the United States in Congress assembled.

The Congress of the United States shall have power to adjourn to any time within the year, and to any place within the United States, so that no period of adjournment be for a longer duration than the space of six months; and shall publish the journal of their proceedings monthly, except such parts thereof relating to treaties, alliances, or military operations, as in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the delegates of each State, on any question, shall be entered on the journal, when it is desired by any delegate; and the delegates of a State, or any of them, at his or their request, shall be furnished with a transcript of the said journal, except such parts as are above excepted, to lay before the Legislatures of the several States.

ART. 10. The committee of the States, or any nine of them, shall be authorized to execute, in the recess of Congress, such of the powers of Congress as the United States in Congress assembled, by the consent of nine States, shall from time to time think expedient to vest them with; provided that no power be delegated to the said committee for the exercise of which, by the articles of confederation, the voice of nine States in the Congress of the United States assembled, is requisite.

ART. 11. Canada, acceding to this confederation, and joining in the measures of the United States, shall be admitted into, and entitled to all the advantages of this Union; but no other colony shall be admitted into the same unless such admission be agreed to by nine States.

ART. 12. All bills of credit emitted, moneys borrowed, and debts contracted by or under the authority of Congress, before the assembling of the United States, in pursuance of the present confederation, shall be deemed and considered as a charge against the United States, for payment and satisfaction whereof the said United States and the public faith are hereby solemnly pledged.

ART. 13. Every State shall abide by the decision of the United States



in Congress assembled, on all questions which, by this confederation, are submitted to them. And the articles of this confederation shall be inviolably observed by every State, and the Union shall be perpetual; nor shall any alteration at any time hereafter be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a Congress of the United States, and be afterward confirmed by the Legislature of every State.

And whereas it has pleased the great Governor of the world to incline the hearts of the Legislatures we respectively represent in Congress, to approve of, and to authorize us to ratify the said articles of confederation and perpetual union: *know ye*, that we, the undersigned delegates, by virtue of the power and authority to us given for that purpose, do, by these presents, in the name and in behalf of our respective constituents, fully and entirely ratify and confirm each and every of the said articles of confederation and perpetual union, and all and singular the matters and things therein contained; and we do further solemnly plight and engage the faith of our respective constituents, that they shall abide by the determinations of the United States in Congress assembled, on all questions which, by the said confederation, are submitted to them; and that the articles thereof shall be inviolably observed by the States we respectively represent; and that the Union be perpetual.

In witness whereof we have hereunto set our hands, in Congress. Done at Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, the ninth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-eight, and in the third year of the independence of America.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.  
JOSIAH BARTLETT,  
JOHN WENTWORTH, Jr.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.  
JOHN HANCOCK,  
SAMUEL ADAMS,  
ELBRIDGE GERRY,  
FRANCIS DANA,  
JAMES LOVELL,  
SAMUEL HOLTEN.

RHODE ISLAND.  
WILLIAM ELLERY,  
HENRY MARCHANT,  
JOHN COLLINS.

CONNECTICUT.  
ROGER SHERMAN,  
SAMUEL HUNTINGTON,  
OLIVER WOLCOTT,  
TITUS HOSMER,  
ANDREW ADAMS.

NEW YORK.  
JAMES DUANE,  
FRANCIS LEWIS,  
WILLIAM DUER,  
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS.

NEW JERSEY.  
JOHN WITHERSPOON,  
NATH. SCUDDER.

PENNSYLVANIA.  
ROBERT MORRIS,  
DANIEL ROBERDEAU,  
JONATHAN BAYARD SMITH,  
WILLIAM CLINGAN,  
JOSEPH REED.

DELAWARE.  
THOMAS M'KEAN,  
JOHN DICKINSON,  
NICHOLAS VAN DYKE.

MARYLAND.  
JOHN HANSON,  
DANIEL CARROLL.

VIRGINIA.  
RICHARD HENRY LEE,  
JOHN BANISTER,  
THOMAS ADAMS,  
JOHN HARVIE,  
FRANCIS LIGHTFOOT LEE.

NORTH CAROLINA.  
JOHN PENN,  
CONSTABLE HARNETT,  
JOHN WILLIAMS.

SOUTH CAROLINA.  
HENRY LAURENS,  
WILLIAM HENRY DRAYTON,  
JOHN MATTHEWS,  
RICHARD HUTSON,  
THOMAS HEYWARD, Jr.

GEORGIA.  
JOHN WALTON,  
EDWARD TELFAIR,  
EDWARD LANGWORTHY.

*Bro Lewis*

## CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES,

COPIED FROM, AND COMPARED WITH, THE ROLL IN THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.



When the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

## ARTICLE I.

SECTION 1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a senate and house of representatives.

SEC. 2. The house of representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several states, and the electors in each state shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the state legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each state shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any state, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The house of representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SEC. 3. The senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any state, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state for which he shall be chosen.

The vice president of the United States shall be president of the senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro-



tempore, in the absence of the vice president, or when he shall exercise the office of president of the United States.

The senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments: When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the president of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: And no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit under the United States: but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment, according to law.

SEC. 4. The times, places and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each state by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SEC. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SEC. 6. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SEC. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the house of representatives and the senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the president of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the president within ten days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the senate and house of representatives may be necessary, (except on a question of adjournment,) shall be presented to the president of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two-thirds of the senate and house of representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SEC. 8. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;



To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the states respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular states, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dockyards, and other needful buildings ; and

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SEC. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the states now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any state.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one state over those of another : nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one state, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law ; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States : And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SEC. 10. No state shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation ; grant letters of marque and reprisal ; coin money ; emit bills of credit ; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts ; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No state shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws : and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any state on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States ; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No state shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships-of-war in time of peace, enter into any agree-

ment or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

## ARTICLE II.

SEC. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a president of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the vice president, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the state may be entitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of president; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the president from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the vice president, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation or inability both of the president and vice president, declaring what officer shall then act as president, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a president shall be elected.

The president shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of president of the United States, and will to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the constitution of the United States."

SEC. 2. The president shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such infe-



rior officers as they think proper, in the president alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The president shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SEC. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SEC. 4. The president, vice president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

#### ARTICLE III.

SEC. 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SEC. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more states; between a state and citizens of another state; between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states; and between a state, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a state shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the state where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any state, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SEC. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

## ARTICLE IV.

SEC. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each state to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other state. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SEC. 2. The citizens of each state shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several states.

A person charged in any state with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another state, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the state from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the state having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SEC. 3. New states may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new state shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be formed by the junction of two or more states, or parts of states, without the consent of the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular state.

SEC. 4. The United States shall guaranty to every state in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and, on application of the legislature, or of the executive, (when the legislature can not be convened,) against domestic violence.

## ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several states, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no state, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate.

## ARTICLE VI.

All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land, and the judges in every state shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any state to the contrary notwithstanding.



The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several state legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several states, shall be bound by oath or affirmation, to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

## ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine states, shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the states so ratifying the same.

Done in convention by the unanimous consent of the states present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEO. WASHINGTON,  
*President, and deputy from Virginia.*

NEW HAMPSHIRE.  
JOHN LANGDON,  
NICHOLAS GILMAN.

MASSACHUSETTS.  
NATHANIEL GORMAN,  
RUFUS KING.

CONNECTICUT.  
WILLIAM SAMUEL JOHNSON,  
ROGER SHERMAN.

NEW YORK.  
ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

NEW JERSEY.  
WILLIAM LIVINGSTON,  
DAVID BREARLEY,  
WILLIAM PATTERSON,  
JONATHAN DAYTON.

PENNSYLVANIA.  
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,  
THOMAS MIFFLIN,  
ROBERT MORRIS,  
GEORGE CLYMER,  
THOMAS FITZSIMMONS,  
JARED INGERSOLL,  
JAMES WILSON,  
GOUVERNEUR MORRIS,  
DELAWARE.  
GEORGE REED,  
GUNNING BEDFORD, JR.,  
JOHN DICKINSON,  
RICHARD BASSETT,  
JACOB BROOM.

MARYLAND.  
JAMES MCHENRY,  
DANIEL OF ST. THO. JENIFER,  
DANIEL CARROLL.

VIRGINIA.  
JOHN BLAIR,  
JAMES MADISON, JR.

NORTH CAROLINA.  
WILLIAM BLOUNT,  
RICHARD DOBBS SPAIGHT,  
HUGH WILLIAMSON.

SOUTH CAROLINA.  
JOHN RUTLEDGE,  
CHARLES C. PINCKNEY,  
CHARLES PINCKNEY,  
PIERCE BUTLER.

GEORGIA.  
WILLIAM FEW,  
ABRAHAM BALDWIN.

Attest:

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

## AMENDMENTS

TO THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, RATIFIED ACCORDING TO THE PROVISIONS OF THE FIFTH ARTICLE OF THE FOREGOING CONSTITUTION.

ART. 1. Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. 2. A well regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ART. 3. No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. 4. The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported

by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. 5. No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject, for the same offence, to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ART. 6. In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the state and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ART. 7. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise reexamined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. 8. Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. 9. The enumeration in the constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. 10. The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.

ART. 11. The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ART. 12. The electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for president and vice president, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as president, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as vice president; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as president, and of all persons voted for as vice president, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of government of the United States, directed to the president of the senate; the president of the senate shall, in the presence of the senate and house of representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for president, shall be the president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as president, the house of representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the president. But in choosing the president, the vote shall be taken by states, the representation from each state having one vote; a quorum for this



purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the house of representatives shall not choose a president whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the vice president shall act as president, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the president. The person having the greatest number of votes as vice president, shall be the vice president, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the senate shall choose the vice president; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of president, shall be eligible to that of vice president of the United States.

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF GEORGE WASHINGTON.

**T**HE family of Washington, in Virginia, is descended from English ancestors, who were anciently established at Turtfield and Warton, in Lancashire, from a branch of whom came Sir William Washington, of Leicestershire, eldest son and heir of Lawrence Washington, Esq., of Sulgrave, in Northamptonshire. Sir William had, besides other younger brothers, two, named John and Lawrence, who emigrated to Virginia in 1657, and settled at Bridge's creek on the Potomac river, in the county of Westmoreland. John, the father of Lawrence Washington, died in 1697, leaving two sons, John and Augustine. Augustine died in 1743, at the age of forty-nine, leaving several sons by his two marriages. George, the president, was the eldest by his second wife, Mary Ball, and was born at Bridge's creek, on the 22d (or 11th, old style) of February, 1732.

Each of the sons of Augustine Washington inherited from him a separate plantation. To the eldest, Lawrence, he bequeathed the estate on the Potomac river, afterward called Mount Vernon, which then consisted of twenty-five hundred acres, and also other lands and property. The second son, Augustine, received an estate in Westmoreland. To George were left the lands and mansion where his father lived at the time of his decease, situated in Stafford county, on the east side of the Rappahannock river, opposite Fredericksburg; and to each of the other four sons an estate of six or seven hundred acres. The youngest daughter died in infancy, and for the only remaining one a suitable provision was made in the will. Thus it will be seen that Augustine Washington left all his children in a state of comparative independence. His occupation had been that of a planter, and the large estates he was enabled to leave his family had been acquired chiefly by his own industry and enterprise.

Left a widow, with the charge of five young children, the eldest of whom was eleven years of age, Mrs. Washington, the mother of George,

exhibited her resources of mind in the superintendence of their education, and the management of the complicated affairs of her deceased husband, who by his will had directed that the proceeds of all the property of her children should be at her disposal until they should respectively come of age. This excellent woman had the happiness to see all her children come forward with a fair promise into life, filling the sphere allotted to them with equal honor to themselves and to the parent who had been the only guide of their principles, conduct and habits. She lived to witness the noble career of her eldest son, till he was raised to the head of a nation, and applauded and revered by the world. Her death took place at the age of eighty-two, at her residence in Fredericksburg, Virginia, August 25, 1789.

Under the colonial governments, particularly in those of the south, the means of education were limited. Those young men who were destined for the learned professions were occasionally sent to England, when their parents were sufficiently wealthy to bear the expenses; while the planters generally were satisfied with such a home education for their sons as would fit them for the duties of practical life by means of a private tutor, or a teacher of the common schools then in existence. The simplest elements of knowledge only, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and keeping accounts, were taught at schools of this description, to one of which George Washington was sent, and to such slender advantages was he indebted for all the aids his mind received in his juvenile years.

While at school he was noted for an inquisitive, docile and diligent disposition, but displaying military propensities and passion for active sports. He formed his playmates into companies, who paraded, marched, and fought mimic battles, in which he was always the commander of one of the parties. He had also a fondness for running, jumping, wrestling, and other active sports and feats of agility.

His early proficiency in some branches of study is shown by his manuscript schoolbooks, which, from the time he was thirteen years old, have been preserved. These books begin with geometry, and he had already become familiar with arithmetic in the most difficult parts. Many pages of the manuscript in question are filled with what he calls *Forms of writing*, such as notes of hand, bills of exchange, bonds, land-warrants, leases, deeds, and wills, written out with care, and in a clerk's hand. Then follow selections in poetry of a moral and religious cast, and *Rules of Behavior in Company and Conversation*, which code of rules it is believed had an influence upon his whole life. Of an ardent temperament and strong passions, it was his constant effort and ultimate triumph, through the varied scenes of his eventful life, to check the one and subdue the other. His intercourse with men, private and public, in every walk and station, was marked with a consistency, a fitness to occasions, a dignity, decorum, condensation, and mildness, which were at once the dictates of his own good sense and judgment, and the fruits of unwearied discipline.

The last two years which he passed at school were devoted to the study of geometry, trigonometry, and surveying, for which he had a decided partiality. He thus qualified himself for his subsequent profession as a surveyor, in the practice of which he had an opportunity of acquiring information respecting vacant lands, and of forming those opinions concerning their future value, which afterward greatly contributed to increase



his private fortune. Except the above branches of the mathematics, his acquirements did not extend beyond the subjects usually taught to boys of his age at the common schools. It is even doubtful whether he received any instructions in the principles of language. By practice, reading and study in after-life, he gradually overcame his early defects in composition, till at length he wrote with accuracy, purity of idiom, and a striking appropriateness of phraseology and clearness of style. No aid was derived from any other than his native tongue. He never even commenced the study of the ancient classics. While in the army, after the French officers had joined the Americans, he bestowed some attention on the French language, but at no time could he write or converse in it, or indeed translate any paper.

In the year 1746, while he was yet at school, a midshipman's warrant was obtained for him in the British army, by his eldest brother, Lawrence, who had been an officer in the British service, and served at the siege of Carthage and in the West Indies. George, who was then fourteen years of age, was desirous thus early of embracing the opportunity presented for a naval life, but the interference of an affectionate mother deferred the commencement and changed the course of his military career.

Soon after leaving school, in his sixteenth year, he went to reside with his brother Lawrence, at his seat on the Potomac river, which had been called Mount Vernon, in compliment to the admiral of that name. The winter passed in the study of mathematics and in the exercise of practical surveying. At this time he was introduced to Lord Fairfax, and other members of the Fairfax family, established in that part of Virginia. With this family his brother Lawrence was connected by marriage, and to his intimate acquaintance with them was George Washington mainly indebted for the opportunities of performing those acts which laid the foundation of his subsequent success and advancement.

Lord Fairfax was possessed of large tracts of wild lands in the valleys of the Alleghany mountains, which had not been surveyed; and so favorable an opinion had he formed of the abilities and attainments of young Washington, that he intrusted to him the responsible service of surveying and laying out the lands in question. He set off on this surveying expedition soon after he had attained his sixteenth year, accompanied by George Fairfax, a young man who was a relative of Lord Fairfax. The enterprise was arduous, and attended with privations and fatigues, but the task was executed in such a manner as to give satisfaction to his employer, and establish his reputation as a surveyor. Having received a commission or appointment as a public surveyor, he devoted three years to this pursuit, which at that time was lucrative and important.

At the age of nineteen he was appointed one of the adjutant-generals of Virginia, with the rank of major. His military propensities had increased with his years, and he prepared himself by the study of books on the military art and by the manual exercise, for the life of a soldier. But he had scarcely engaged in this service, when he was called upon to accompany his brother Lawrence on a voyage to the West Indies for his health. They sailed for Barbadoes in September, 1751, and soon after landing on that island, George was seized with the smallpox. The disease was severe, but with good medical attendance he was able to go abroad in three weeks. Leaving his brother Lawrence to embark for Bermuda, he

returned to Virginia in February, having been absent over four months. His brother soon followed him, without recovering his health, and died the following summer. Large estates were left by the deceased brother to the care and management of George, who was appointed one of the executors, with a contingent interest in the estate of Mount Vernon and other lands. But his private employments did not prevent his attention to his public duties as adjutant-general, the sphere of which office was enlarged by new arrangements.

The plan formed by France for connecting her extensive dominions in America, by uniting Canada with Louisiana, now began to develop itself. Possession was taken by the French of a tract of country then deemed to be within the province of Virginia, and a line of posts was commenced from Canada to the Ohio river. The attention of Lieutenant Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, was attracted by these movements, and he deemed it his duty to send a messenger to the French officers to demand, in the name of the king of Great Britain, that they should desist from the prosecution of designs which violated, as he thought, the treaties between the two crowns. Washington, at his own desire, was selected for this hazardous enterprise, and he engaged in it with alacrity, commencing his journey the day on which he was commissioned, in October, 1753. His course was through a dreary wilderness, inhabited for the most part only by Indians, many of whom were hostile to the English. Conducted by guides over the Alleghany mountains, he suffered many hardships, and experienced many narrow escapes, but succeeded in reaching the French forts on the Alleghany branches of the Ohio. After delivering the lieutenant governor's letter to St. Pierre, the French commanding officer, and receiving an answer, he returned, with infinite fatigue, and much danger from the hostile Indians, to Williamsburg. The manner in which he performed his duty on this occasion raised him much in public opinion, as well as in that of the lieutenant governor. His journal, which extended to sixty days, was published by authority, and laid the foundation of Washington's fame, as it gave strong evidence of his sagacity, fortitude and sound judgment.

As the French commandant on the Ohio showed no disposition, in his answer sent by Washington, to withdraw his forces from that country, the assembly of Virginia determined to authorize the governor and council to raise a regiment of three hundred men, to be sent to the frontier, for the purpose of maintaining the rights of Great Britain to the territory invaded by the French. The command of this regiment was given to Colonel Fry. Major Washington was appointed lieutenant colonel, and obtained permission to march with two companies in advance of the other troops to the Great Meadows. In a dark rainy night, May 28, 1754, Colonel Washington surrounded and surprised a detachment of the French troops, a few miles west of the Great Meadows. The Americans fired about daybreak upon the French, who immediately surrendered. One man only escaped, and the commanding officer of the party, M. de Jumonville, and ten of his men, were killed. Being soon after joined by the residue of the regiment, also by two companies of regulars, and Colonel Fry having died, the command devolved on Colonel Washington. This body of men, numbering less than four hundred, were, in the following month of July, attacked by about fifteen hundred French and Indians, at Fort Necessity, situated at



the Great Meadows, and after a contest which lasted a whole day, the French offered terms of capitulation, and articles were signed, by which the fort was surrendered, and the garrison allowed the honors of war, and permitted to return unmolested into the inhabited parts of Virginia. Great credit was given to Colonel Washington by his countrymen, for the courage displayed on this occasion, and the legislature were so satisfied with the conduct of the party as to vote their thanks to him and the officers under his command. They also ordered three hundred pistoles to be distributed among the soldiers, as a reward for their bravery.

Soon after this campaign, Washington retired from the militia service, in consequence of an order from the war department in England, which put those of the same military rank in the royal army over the heads of those in the provincial forces. This order created great dissatisfaction in the colonies, and Washington, while refusing to submit to the degradation required, declared that he would serve with pleasure when he should be enabled to do so without dishonor.

The unfortunate expedition of General Braddock followed in 1755. The general, being informed of the merit of Washington, invited him to enter into his family as a volunteer and aid-de-camp. This invitation Colonel Washington accepted, as he was desirous to make one campaign under an officer supposed to possess some knowledge in the art of war. The disastrous result of Braddock's expedition is well known. In the battle of the Monongahela, in which General Braddock was killed, Washington had two horses shot under him, and four balls passed through his coat, as his duty and situation exposed him to every danger. Such was the general confidence in his talents, that he may be said to have conducted the retreat.

Soon after his return to his home at Mount Vernon, Colonel Washington was appointed by the legislature of the colony, commander-in-chief of all the forces raised and to be raised in Virginia, which appointment he accepted, and for about three years devoted his time to recruiting and organizing troops for the defence of the colony. In the course of his duties in this service, he had occasion to visit Boston on business with General Shirley, who was then the British commander-in-chief in America. This journey of five hundred miles, Washington, accompanied by his aid and another officer, performed on horseback in the winter of 1756. He stopped several days in the principal cities on the route, where his military character and services in the late campaign procured for him much notice.

While in New York he was entertained at the house of Mr. Beverly Robinson, between whom and himself an intimacy subsisted till it was broken off by their opposite fortune twenty years afterward in the revolution. The sister of Mrs. Robinson, Miss Mary Phillips, was an inmate of the family, and being a young lady of rare accomplishments, her charms made a deep impression upon the heart of the Virginia colonel. He imparted his secret to a confidential friend whose letters kept him informed of every important event. He soon learned that a rival was in the field, and was advised to renew his visits; but he never saw the lady again, till she was married to that same rival, Captain Morris, his former associate in arms, and one of Braddock's aids-de-camp.

In 1758 Colonel Washington commanded an expedition to Fort Du Quesne, which terminated successfully, and the French retired from the

western frontier. By gaining possession of the Ohio the great object of the war in the middle colonies was accomplished, and having abandoned the idea he had entertained of making an attempt to be united to the British establishment, he resigned his commission in the colonial service, in December, 1758, after having been actively engaged in the service of his country more than five years.

Having paid his addresses successfully the preceding year to Mrs. Martha Custis, Colonel Washington was married to that lady on the sixth of January, 1759. She was three months younger than himself, and was the widow of John Parke Custis, and daughter of John Dandridge. Distinguished alike for her beauty, accomplishments and wealth, she was possessed also of those qualities which adorn the female character, and contribute to render domestic life attractive and happy. Mr. Custis, her first husband, had left large landed estates, and forty-five thousand pounds sterling in money. One-third of this property his widow held in her own right, the other two-thirds being equally divided between her, a son and daughter—the former six years old, the latter four, at the time of her second marriage.

An accession of more than one hundred thousand dollars was made to Colonel Washington's fortune by this marriage, in addition to what he already possessed in the estate of Mount Vernon, and other lands which he had selected during his surveying expeditions, and obtained at different times. His extensive private affairs now required his constant attention. He was also guardian to the two children of Mrs. Washington, and this trust he discharged with all the care of a father, till the son became of age, and the daughter died in her nineteenth year. This union was in every respect felicitous, and continued forty years—the lady surviving her distinguished husband only about eighteen months. To her intimate acquaintances, and to the nation, the character of Mrs. Washington was ever a theme of praise. Affable, courteous and charitable, exemplary in her deportment, unostentatious and without vanity, she was much esteemed in private life, and filled with dignity every station in which she was placed.

To the delightful retreat of Mount Vernon, the late commander of the Virginia forces, released from the cares of a military life, and in possession of everything that could make life agreeable, withdrew, three months after his marriage, and gave himself up to domestic pursuits. These were conducted with so much judgment, steadiness and industry, as greatly to enlarge and improve his estate. He had a great fondness for agricultural pursuits, and in all the scenes of his public career, there was no subject upon which his mind dwelt with so lively an interest as on that of agriculture. The staple product of Virginia, particularly in the lower counties, was tobacco, to the culture of which Washington chiefly directed his care. This he exported to England for a market, importing thence, as was then the practice of the Virginia planters, implements of agriculture, wearing apparel, and most other articles of common family use. For the study of English literature he had a decided taste, and his name is frequently to be found as subscriber to such works as were published in the colonies.

The enjoyments of private life at Mount Vernon, and the exercise of a generous hospitality at that mansion, continued uninterrupted for a period of about fifteen years, with the exception of his absence from home during



the session of the Virginia legislature, to the house of burgesses of which colony Washington was first elected a representative from the county of Frederic, during his last military campaign, without his personal solicitation or influence. He took his seat in that body at Williamsburg, in 1759, and from that time till the beginning of the revolution, a period of fifteen years, he was constantly a member of the house of burgesses, being returned by a majority of votes at every election. For seven years he represented, jointly with another delegate, the county of Frederic, and afterward the county of Fairfax, in which he resided. There were commonly two sessions in a year, and sometimes three. He gave his attendance punctually, and from the beginning to the end of almost every session.

His influence in public bodies was produced more by the soundness of his judgment, his quick perceptions, and his directness and sincerity, than by eloquence or art. He seldom spoke, never harangued, and it is not known that he ever made a set speech, or entered into a stormy debate. But his attention was at all times awake, and he was ever ready to act with decision and firmness. His practice may be inferred by the following counsel. In a letter to a nephew, who had been chosen and taken his seat as a member of the assembly, he says: "The only advice I will offer, if you have a mind to command the attention of the house, is to speak seldom, but on important subjects, except such as properly relate to your constituents, and in the former case make yourself perfectly master of the subject. Never exceed a decent warmth, and submit your sentiments with diffidence. A dictatorial style, though it may carry conviction, is always accompanied with disgust."

In the Virginia legislature Washington acquitted himself with reputation, and gained no inconsiderable knowledge of the science of civil government. During this period the clashing claims of Great Britain and her colonies were frequently brought before the colonial assembly. In every instance he took a decided part in the opposition made to the principle of taxation claimed by the mother country, and went heart and hand with Henry, Randolph, Lee, Wythe, and the other prominent leaders of the time. His disapprobation of the stamp act was expressed in unqualified terms. He spoke of it in a letter written at the time, as an "unconstitutional method of taxation," and "a direful attack on the liberties of the colonists." And subsequently he said: "The repeal of the stamp act, to whatever cause owing, ought much to be rejoiced at. All, therefore, who were instrumental in procuring the repeal, are entitled to the thanks of every British subject, and have mine cordially." He was present in the Virginia legislature when Patrick Henry offered his celebrated resolutions on this subject, and from his well known sentiments expressed on other occasions, it is presumed that Washington concurred with the patriotic party which supported these early movements in favor of colonial rights and liberties.

In the subsequent acts of the people of the colonies in resisting the claims and aggressions of the British government, Washington cordially sympathized, and approved of the most decisive measures proposed in opposition, particularly of the agreements not to import goods from Great Britain. "The northern colonies," he remarks in a letter to George Mason, "it appears, are endeavoring to adopt this scheme. In my opinion, it is a good one, and must be attended with salutary effects, provided

it can be carried pretty generally into execution." In these sentiments Mr. Mason concurred, and with a view to bring about a concert of action between Virginia and the northern colonies, he drew up a series of articles in the form of an association. The house of burgesses met in May, 1769, and as Mr. Mason was not a member, Washington took charge of the non-importation agreement paper, which, on being presented by him, after the dissolution of the assembly, was unanimously adopted by the members, who assembled in a body at a private house. Every member subscribed his name to it, and it was then printed and distributed in the country for the signatures of the people. Washington was scrupulous in observing this agreement, enjoining his correspondents in London to send him none of the articles enumerated in the agreement of association, unless the offensive acts of parliament should be repealed.

In the autumn of 1770, Washington, accompanied by a friend, visited the western lands of Virginia on the Ohio river, for the purpose of selecting tracts awarded to the officers and soldiers for their services in the French war. Proceeding to Pittsburgh on horseback, he there embarked in a canoe, and descended the Ohio river to the Great Kenhawa, a distance of 265 miles. After examining the lands on the latter river, and making selections, he returned up the Ohio and thence to Mount Vernon.

The Virginia assembly, which had been prorogued by the governor, Lord Dunmore, from time to time, until March, 1773, is distinguished as having brought forward the resolves instituting a committee of correspondence, and recommending the same to the legislatures of the other colonies; Washington was present and gave his support to those resolves. At the next session, which took place in May, 1774, the assembly adopted still more decisive measures. The news having reached Williamsburg at the commencement of the session, of the passage of the act of the British Parliament for shutting up the port of Boston, the sympathy and patriotic feelings of the burgesses were strongly excited, and they forthwith passed an order deprecating such a procedure, and setting apart the first of June to be observed as a day of fasting and prayer to implore the Divine interposition in behalf of the colonies. The governor thereupon dissolved the house the next morning.

The delegates, eighty-nine in number, immediately repaired to the Raleigh tavern, organized themselves into a committee, and drew up and signed an association, among other matters advising the committee of correspondence to communicate with the committees of the other colonies, on the expediency of adopting deputies to meet in a general correspondence. Although the idea of a congress had been suggested by Doctor Franklin the year before, and proposed by town meetings at Providence, (Rhode Island) Boston, and New York, yet this was the first public assembly by which it was formally recommended.

Twenty-five of the Virginia delegates, who had remained in Williamsburg, among whom was Washington, met on the twenty-ninth of May, and issued a circular letter to the people of Virginia, recommending a meeting of deputies from the several counties at Williamsburg, on the first of August, for the purpose of a more full and deliberate discussion. Meetings were accordingly held in the several counties, resolutions were adopted, and delegates appointed to the proposed convention. In Fairfax county, Washington presided as chairman, and was one of a committee to prepare



a series of resolves, expressive of the sense of the people. These resolves are twenty-four in number, and were drawn by George Mason; they constitute an able and luminous exposition of the points at issue between Great Britain and the colonies. They are of special interest as containing the opinions of Washington at a critical time, when he was soon to be raised by his countrymen to a station of the highest trust and responsibility.

In a letter to his friend Bryan Fairfax, dated July 20, 1774, Washington writes as follows:

"Satisfied, then, that the acts of the British Parliament are no longer governed by the principles of justice, that they are trampling upon the valuable rights of Americans, confirmed to them by charter and by the constitution they themselves boast of, and convinced beyond the smallest doubt, that these measures are the result of deliberation, and attempted to be carried into execution by the hand of power, is it a time to trifle, or risk our cause upon petitions, which with difficulty obtain access, and afterward are thrown by with the utmost contempt? Or should we, because heretofore unsuspecting of design, and then unwilling to enter into disputes with the mother-country, go on to bear more, and forbear to enumerate our just causes of complaint? For my own part, I shall not undertake to say where the line between Great Britain and the colonies should be drawn; but I am clearly of opinion that one ought to be drawn, and our rights clearly ascertained. I could wish, I own, that the dispute had been left to posterity to determine, but the crisis is arrived when we must assert our rights, or submit to every imposition that can be heaped upon us, till custom and use shall make us tame and abject slaves."

One of the principal acts of the Virginia convention, which met at Williamsburg on the first of August, 1774, of which body Washington was a member, was to adopt a new association, whose objects were resistance to parliamentary aggressions, by non-intercourse with Great Britain. The convention appointed Peyton Randolph, Richard Henry Lee, George Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Bland, and Edmund Pendleton, delegates to the first continental Congress, which met at Philadelphia on the fifth of September. Two of Washington's associates, Mr. Henry and Mr. Pendleton, stopped on their way at Mount Vernon, whence they all pursued their journey together, and were present at the opening of the Congress. As the debates of that distinguished assembly were never made public, the part performed by each individual cannot now be known. In its transactions, however, Washington took an active part, and Mr. Wirt, in his life of Patrick Henry, relates an anecdote which shows in what estimation he was held by his associate members of Congress. Soon after Patrick Henry returned home, being asked whom he thought the greatest man in Congress, he replied: "If you speak of eloquence, Mr. Rutledge, of South Carolina, is by far the greatest orator; but if you speak of solid information and sound judgment, Colonel Washington is unquestionably the greatest man on that floor."

Replying to a letter from his friend, Captain Mackenzie of the British army, then stationed at Boston, in which that officer spoke of the rebellious conduct of the Bostonians, their military preparations, and their secret aim at independence, Washington wrote, while attending the Congress, giving his sentiments and views on the state of public affairs. The following are extracts:

"Although you are taught to believe that the people of Massachusetts are rebellious, setting up for independence, and what not, give me leave, my good friend, to tell you that you are abused, grossly abused. Give me leave to add, and I think I can announce it as a fact, that it is not the wish or interest of that government, or any other upon this continent, separately or collectively, to set up for independence; but this you may at the same time rely on, that none of them will ever submit to the loss of those valuable rights and privileges which are essential to the happiness of every free state, and without which, life, liberty, and property, are rendered totally insecure.

"Again, give me leave to add, as my opinion, that more blood will be spilled on this occasion, if the ministry are determined to push matters to extremity, than history has ever yet furnished instances of in the annals of North America, and such a vital wound will be given to the peace of this great country, as time itself cannot cure, or eradicate the remembrance of."

What is here said of independence is confirmed by the address of the first Congress to the people of Great Britain. "You have been told that we are seditious, impatient of government, and desirous of independency. Be assured that these are not facts, but calumnies." That such were at this time the sentiments of the leaders in America, there can be no reasonable doubt; being accordant with all their public acts and private declarations.

It is not easy to determine at what precise date the idea of independence was first entertained by the principal persons in America. The spirit and form of their institutions led the colonists frequently to act as an independent people, and to set up high claims in regard to their rights and privileges; but there is no sufficient evidence to prove that any province, or any number of prominent individuals, entertained serious thoughts of separating entirely from the mother country, till very near the actual commencement of the war of the revolution.

While Washington and his principal coadjutors had no confidence in the success of petitions to the king and parliament, and looked forward to the probable appeal to arms, they were still without any other anticipations than by a resolute vindication of their rights to effect a change in the conduct and policy of the British government, and restore the colonies to their former condition.

On returning from Congress to his farm, Colonel Washington was soon interrupted in his private occupations by the calls of his fellow citizens of Virginia, to assist in organizing military companies for the defense of the colony, and to prepare for the approaching contest with Great Britain. He was consulted as the first military character in Virginia, and it seemed to be the expectation of the people that in the event of a war he would be placed in command of the Virginia forces. Being solicited to act as field officer in an independent company, he wrote to his brother as follows: "I shall very cheerfully accept the honor of commanding it, if occasion require it to be drawn out, as it is my full intention to devote my life and fortune in the cause we are engaged in, if needful."

Washington was a delegate to the second Virginia convention, which met at Richmond on the 20th of March, 1775, and approved of the proceedings of the continental Congress of 1774. A committee, of which



Washington was a member, was appointed, on motion of Patrick Henry, and reported a plan of defense, by embodying, arming, and disciplining the militia. He was also on a committee to devise a plan for the encouragement of domestic arts and manufactures. The people were advised to form societies for that purpose, and the members of the convention agreed that they would use home manufactures in preference to any others, themselves. The former delegates were again chosen by the convention to represent Virginia in the next continental Congress, and Washington with his colleagues repaired to Philadelphia, where that body assembled on the 10th of May, 1775.

Hostilities having commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, Congress first proceeded to consider the state of the country and to provide for defense. The military fame and reputation of Washington were universally acknowledged by his countrymen and duly appreciated by his associates in the national councils. He was appointed chairman of the various committees charged with the duty of making arrangements for defense, including the devising of ways and means, making estimates, and preparing rules and regulations for the government of the army. The forces under the direction of Congress were, on motion of John Adams, called "the continental army."

The selection of a commander-in-chief of the American armies was a task of great delicacy and difficulty. There were several older officers than Colonel Washington, of experience and reputation, who had claims for the appointment, but it was considered good policy to make the selection from Virginia, and all acknowledged the military accomplishments and other superior qualifications of Washington. The New England delegates were among the foremost to propose and the most zealous to promote the appointment of Colonel Washington. John Adams, one of the Massachusetts delegates, on moving that the army then besieging the British troops in Boston should be adopted by Congress as a continental army, said it was his intention to propose for the office of commander-in-chief a gentleman from Virginia, who was at that time a member of their own body. When the day for the appointment arrived, (the fifteenth of June, 1775,) the nomination was made by Mr. Thomas Johnson of Maryland. The choice was by ballot, and Colonel Washington was unanimously elected. As soon as the result was ascertained, the house adjourned. On the convening of Congress the next morning, the president communicated to him officially the notice of his appointment, and he rose in his place, and signified his acceptance in the following brief and appropriate reply:

"MR. PRESIDENT: Though I am truly sensible of the high honor done me in this appointment, yet I feel great distress from a consciousness that my abilities and military experience may not be equal to the extensive and important trust. However, as the Congress desire it, I will enter upon the momentous duty, and exert every power I possess in their service, and for the support of the glorious cause. I beg they will accept my most cordial thanks for this distinguished testimony of their approbation.

"But lest some unlucky event should happen unfavorable to my reputation, I beg it may be remembered by every gentleman in the room, that I this day declare, with the utmost sincerity, I do not think myself equal to the command I am honored with.

"As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the Congress, that, as no pecuni-

any consideration could have tempted me to accept this arduous employment, at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses; those, I doubt not, they will discharge, and that is all I desire."

In a letter to his wife, announcing his appointment, dated Philadelphia, June 18, 1775, Washington expressed similar sentiments to the foregoing, as follows:

"MY DEAREST: I am now set down to write to you on a subject which fills me with inexpressible concern, and this concern is greatly aggravated and increased, when I reflect upon the uneasiness I know it will give you. It has been determined in Congress, that the whole army raised for the defense of the American cause shall be put under my care, and that it is necessary for me to proceed immediately to Boston to take upon me the command of it.

"You may believe me, when I assure you in the most solemn manner, that, so far from seeking this appointment, I have used every endeavor in my power to avoid it, not only from my unwillingness to part with you and the family, but from a consciousness of its being a trust too great for my capacity, and that I should enjoy more real happiness in one month with you at home, than I have the most distant prospect of finding abroad, if my stay were to be seven times seven years. But as it has been a kind of destiny that has thrown me upon this service, I shall hope that my undertaking it is designed to answer some good purpose. You might and I suppose did perceive, from the tenor of my letters, that I was apprehensive I could not avoid this appointment, without exposing my character to such censures as would have reflected dishonor upon myself and given pain to my friends. This, I am sure, could not, and ought not, to be pleasing to you, and must have lessened me considerably in my own esteem. I shall rely, therefore, confidently on that Providence which has heretofore preserved and been bountiful to me."

The appointment was made on the 15th of June, four days after which he received his commission from the president of Congress, declaring him commander-in-chief of all the forces then raised, or that should be raised, in the united colonies, or that should voluntarily offer their services for the defence of American liberty. The members of Congress by resolution, unanimously pledged themselves to maintain, assist, and adhere to him with their lives and fortunes, in the same cause. Four major-generals, eight brigadier-generals, and an adjutant-general, were likewise appointed by Congress for the continental army.

On the 21st of June, Gen. Washington hastened from Philadelphia to join the continental army at Cambridge near Boston. He was accompanied by Generals Lee and Schuyler, and escorted by a volunteer troop of light horse which continued with him to New York. On his way he was everywhere received by the people with enthusiasm, and the respect to which his new rank entitled him. The particulars of the battle of Bunker's hill reached him at New York, and increased his anxiety to hasten forward to the army. Leaving Gen. Schuyler in command at New York, Washington again pursued his journey, escorted by volunteer military companies, to Springfield, Massachusetts, where he was met by a committee of the provincial Congress of that colony, which attended him to Cambridge. He



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arrived at the latter place on the second of July, and took the command of the army the next day.

At this time Gen. Washington found the British intrenched on Bunker's hill, having also three floating batteries in Mystic river, and a twenty-gun ship below the ferry between Boston and Charlestown. They had also a battery on Copp's hill, and were strongly fortified on Boston Neck. The Americans were intrenched at various points, so as to form a line of siege around Boston and Charlestown.

The effective force of the American army placed under the command of Washington, amounted to fourteen thousand five hundred men, raised in the New England colonies. Several circumstances concurred to render this force very inadequate to active operations. Military stores were deficient in camp, and the whole amount in the country was inconsiderable. Under all these embarrassments, the general observed, that "he had the materials of a good army; that the men were able-bodied, active, zealous in the cause, and of unquestionable courage." He immediately instituted such arrangements as were calculated to increase their capacity for service. The army was distributed into brigades and divisions, and on his recommendation, general staff-officers were appointed. Economy, union, and system, were introduced into every department. As the troops came into service under the authority of distinct colonial governments, no uniformity existed among the regiments. In Massachusetts, the men had chosen their officers, and (rank excepted) were in other respects, frequently their equals. To form one uniform mass of these discordant materials, and to subject freemen, animated with the spirit of liberty, and collected for its defense, to the control of military discipline, required patience, forbearance, and a spirit of accommodation. This delicate and arduous duty was undertaken by General Washington, and discharged with great address. When he had made considerable progress in disciplining his army, the term for which enlistments had taken place was on the point of expiring. The commander-in-chief made early and forcible representations to Congress on this subject, and urged them to adopt efficient measures for the formation of a new army. They deputed three of their members, Mr. Lynch, Dr. Franklin, and Mr. Harrison, to repair to camp, and in conjunction with him and the chief magistrates of the New England colonies, to confer on the most effectual mode of continuing, supporting and regulating a continental army. By them it was resolved to enlist 23,722 men, as far as practicable, from the troops before Boston, to serve till the last day of December, 1776, unless sooner discharged by Congress.

In the execution of this resolve, Washington called upon all officers and soldiers to make their election for retiring or continuing. Several of the inferior officers retired. Many of the men would not continue on any terms. Several refused, unless they were indulged with furloughs; others, unless they were allowed to choose their officers. So many impediments obstructed the recruiting service, that it required great address to obviate them. Washington made forcible appeals, in general orders, to the pride and patriotism of both officers and men. He promised every indulgence compatible with safety, and every comfort that the state of the country authorized. In general orders, of the 20th of October, he observed:

"The times, and the importance of the great cause we are engaged in, allow no room for hesitation and delay. When life, liberty, and property

are at stake; when our country is in danger of being a melancholy scene of bloodshed and desolation; when our towns are laid in ashes, innocent women and children driven from their peaceful habitations, exposed to the rigors of an inclement season, to depend perhaps on the hand of charity for support; when calamities like these are staring us in the face, and a brutal, savage enemy threatens us and everything we hold dear with destruction from foreign troops; it little becomes the character of a soldier to shrink from danger, and condition for new terms. It is the general's intention to indulge both officers and soldiers who compose the new army with furloughs for a reasonable time; but this must be done in such a manner as not to injure the service, or weaken the army too much at once."

In the instructions given to the recruiting officers, the general enjoined upon them, "not to enlist any person suspected of being unfriendly to the liberties of America, or any abandoned vagabond, to whom all causes and countries are equal and alike indifferent."

Though great exertions had been made to procure recruits, yet the regiments were not filled. Several causes operated in producing this disinclination to the service. The sufferings of the army had been great; fuel, clothes, and even provisions, had not been furnished them in sufficient quantities; the small-pox deterred many from entering; but the principal reason was a dislike to a military life. Much, also, of that enthusiasm which brought numbers to the field, on the commencement of hostilities, had abated. The army of 1775 was wasting away by the expiration of the terms of service, and recruits for the new entered slowly.

Unfortunately, an essential error had been committed in constituting the first military establishment of the Union, the consequences of which ceased only with the war. The soldiers were enlisted for the term of one year, if not sooner discharged by Congress. This fatal error brought the American cause more than once into real hazard.

General Washington had earnestly urged Congress to offer a bounty; but this expedient was not adopted till late in January; and on the last day of December, 1775, when the old army was disbanded, only nine thousand six hundred and fifty men had been enlisted for the army of 1776.

The general viewed with deep mortification the inactivity to which he was compelled to submit. His real difficulties were not generally known; his numbers were exaggerated; his means of acting on the offensive were magnified; the expulsion of the British army from Boston had been long since anticipated by many; and those were not wanting who insinuated that the commander-in-chief was desirous of prolonging the war, in order to continue his own importance.

Congress having manifested dispositions favorable to an attack on Boston, General Washington continued to direct his utmost efforts to that object. In January, 1776, a council of war resolved, "that a vigorous attempt ought to be made on the ministerial troops in Boston, before they can be reinforced in the spring, if the means can be provided, and a favorable opportunity should offer;" and for this purpose that thirteen regiments of militia should be required from Massachusetts and the neighboring colonies. The colonies complied with this requisition; but such was the mildness of the early part of the winter, that the waters continued open, and of course impassable.

Late in February, appearances among the British troops indicated an



intention to evacuate Boston. But as these appearances might be deceptive, General Washington determined to prosecute a plan which must force General Howe either to come to an action or abandon the town.

Since the allowance of a bounty, recruiting had been more successful, and the regular force had been augmented to fourteen thousand men. The commander-in-chief had also called to his aid six thousand militia. Thus reinforced, he determined to take possession of the heights of Dorchester and fortify them. As the possession of this post would enable him to annoy the ships in the harbor, and the soldiers in the town of Boston, he was persuaded that a general action would ensue. Should this hope be disappointed, his purpose was to make the works on the heights of Dorchester preparatory to seizing and fortifying other points which commanded the harbor, a great part of the town, and the beach from which an embarkation must take place in the event of a retreat.

To facilitate the execution of this plan, a heavy bombardment and cannonade were commenced on the British lines on the second of March, which were repeated on the succeeding nights. On the east of them a strong detachment, under the command of General Thomas, took possession of the heights, and labored with such persevering activity through the night, that the works were sufficiently advanced by the morning nearly to cover them.

It was necessary to dislodge the Americans or to evacuate the town, and General Howe determined to embrace the former part of the alternative. Three thousand chosen men, commanded by Lord Percy, embarked, and fell down to the castle, in order to proceed up the river to the intended scene of action, but were scattered by a furious storm. Before they could be again in readiness for the attack, the works were made so strong that the attempt to storm them was thought inadvisable, and the evacuation of the town became inevitable.

This determination was soon known to the Americans. A paper signed by some of the selectmen, and brought out by a flag, communicated the fact. This paper was accompanied by propositions said to be made by General Howe, relative to the security of the town and the peaceable embarkation of his army. The advances of the American troops were discontinued, and considerable detachments were moved toward New York before the actual evacuation of Boston. That event took place on the seventeenth of March, 1776; and in a few days the whole fleet sailed out of Nantasket road, directing its course eastward; immediately after which the American army proceeded by divisions to New York, where it arrived on the fourteenth of April.

Washington and the continental army were received with enthusiasm by the inhabitants of Boston. The legislature of Massachusetts presented the commander-in-chief with an address, congratulating him on the successful result of the siege of Boston, and expressing their obligations for the great services he had rendered to his country. The continental Congress also passed a unanimous vote of thanks to him, and a gold medal was ordered to be struck commemorative of the evacuation of Boston, and as an honorable token of the public approbation of his conduct.

General Howe, with the British army of about ten thousand men, and one thousand refugees or tories, sailed for Halifax in seventy-eight ships and transports; but anxious for the safety of New York, and apprehensive

that the British commander might have concealed his real designs and directed his course to that important point, the American commander-in-chief had directed his march to New York, as already stated. They went by land to Norwich, Connecticut, and thence by water through Long Island sound. When it was ascertained that the British fleet had put to sea, ten days after the evacuation of Boston, Washington set off for New York, passing through Providence, Norwich, and New London. At Norwich he had an interview with Governor Trumbull, who came there to meet him. On the thirteenth of April he arrived in New York.

General Washington found it impracticable, or inconsistent with his duties, to carry out his original design of visiting his family at Mount Vernon in the winter, and attending for a short space to his private affairs. Mrs. Washington therefore joined him at head quarters at Cambridge, in December, 1775, where she remained till the next spring. This was her practice during the war. She passed the winters with her husband in camp, and returned at the opening of the campaigns to Mount Vernon.

His large estates were consigned to the care of a superintendent, Mr. Lund Washington, who executed the trust with diligence and fidelity. Notwithstanding the multitude of public concerns, which at all times pressed heavily, and which he never neglected, the thoughts of General Washington constantly reverted to his farms. In the midst of the most stirring events of the war, he kept up an unremitted correspondence with his manager, in which he entered into details, gave minute instructions, and exacting reports, relating to the culture of his lands, and every transaction of business. From the beginning to the end of the revolution, Lund Washington wrote to the General, as often at least as two or three times a month, and commonly every week, detailing minutely all the events that occurred on the plantation. These letters were regularly answered by the general, even when the weight and embarrassment of public duties pressed heavily upon him.

An extract from one of his letters to Lund Washington on these topics, dated December, 1775, will show a trait of character, and the footing on which he left his household at Mount Vernon:

"Let the hospitalities of the house, with respect to the poor, be kept up. Let no one go hungry away. If any of this kind of people should be in want of corn, supply their necessities, provided it does not encourage them in idleness; and I have no objection to your giving my money in charity, to the amount of forty or fifty pounds a year, when you think it well bestowed. What I mean by having no objection is, that is my desire that it should be done. You are to consider, that neither myself nor wife is now in the way to do these good offices. In all other respects, I recommend it to you, and have no doubt of your observing the greatest economy and frugality; as I suppose you know that I do not get a farthing for my services here, more than my expenses. It becomes necessary, therefore, for me to be saving at home."

To detail the operations of Washington in public affairs in the years which followed, would be to repeat the history of the war of the American revolution, and, of course, greatly exceed the limits of the part of this work allotted to a memoir of his life. We can therefore only allude to the prominent events with which his personal history was connected during that eventful period, following him rapidly in his movements, until peace



and the acknowledgement of American independence by Great Britain crowned his efforts in the cause of his country.

The evacuation of Boston varied the scene, but did not lessen the labors of Washington. Henceforward he had a much more formidable enemy to contend with. The royal army in Boston was, on a small scale, calculated to awe the inhabitants of Massachusetts into obedience, but the campaign of 1776 was opened in New York with a force far exceeding anything hitherto seen in America. Including the navy, as well as the army, it amounted to forty-five thousand men, and was calculated on the idea of reducing the whole united colonies. The operations contemplated could be best carried on from the central province of New York, and the army could be supplied with provisions from the adjacent islands, and easily defended by the British navy. For these reasons, the evacuation of Boston, and the concentration of the royal forces at New York, had been for some time resolved upon in England.

The reasons that had induced the British to gain possession of New York, weighed with Washington to prevent or delay it. He had, therefore, as already stated, detached largely from his army before Boston, and sent General Lee to take the command, following the main army himself immediately after the evacuation and departure of the British army from Boston; and he now made every preparation in his power for the defense of New York. Considerable time was allowed for this purpose, in consequence of the delay of General Howe at Halifax, where that officer waited for promised reinforcements from England.

Besides the preparations for defense against the British army, Washington had to guard against the numerous disaffected persons and tories, or American loyalists, on Long island, Staten island, and in the city of New York. By the persevering representations of Washington, Congress adopted measures for the apprehension of this class of enemies to the American cause. Many tories were apprehended in New York and on Long island; some were imprisoned, others disarmed. A deep plot, originating with the British governor Tryon, who continued on board a vessel at the Hook, was defeated by a timely and fortunate discovery. His agents were found enlisting men in the American camp, and enticing them with rewards. The infection spread to a considerable extent, and even reached the general's guard, some of whom enlisted. A soldier of the guard was found guilty by a court-martial and executed. It was a part of the plot to seize General Washington and convey him to the enemy.

General Howe, with a part of the British fleet and army arrived at the Hook from Halifax, in the latter part of June, and took possession of Staten island. The general then awaited the arrival of his brother, Lord Howe, who was on his way from England with another fleet, and proposals from the British ministry for an accommodation to be offered to the Americans, before hostilities should be renewed.

General Washington had visited Philadelphia in the month of May, for the purpose of advising with Congress on the state of affairs and concerting arrangements for the campaign. He was absent fifteen days, examining on his way, Staten island and the Jersey shore, with the view of determining the proper places for works of defense. He seems to have been disappointed and concerned at dissensions in Congress which portended no good to the common cause. It was known, from late proceedings in Par-

liament, that commissioners were coming out from England with proposals of accommodation. In a letter to his brother, dated at Philadelphia, May 31, 1776, Washington expresses his gratification that the Virginia convention had passed a vote with great unanimity, recommending to Congress to declare the united colonies free and independent states. "Things have come to such a pass now," he writes, "as to convince us, that we have nothing more to expect from the justice of Great Britain; also that she is capable of the most delusive arts; for I am satisfied that no commissioners were ever designed, except Hessians and other foreigners; and that the idea was only to deceive and throw us off our guard. The first has been too effectually accomplished; as many members of Congress, in short, the representation of whole provinces, are still feeding themselves upon the dainty food of reconciliation; and though they will not allow that the expectation of it has any influence upon their judgment with respect to their preparations for defense, it is but too obvious that it has an operation upon every part of their conduct, and is a clog to their proceedings. It is not in the nature of things to be otherwise; for no man that entertains a hope of seeing this dispute speedily and equitably adjusted by commissioners, will go to the same expense and run the same hazards to prepare for the worst event, as he who believes that he must conquer, or submit to unconditional terms, and the concomitants, such as confiscation, hanging, and the like."

Notwithstanding the hesitancy of some of the members of Congress, there was still a large majority for vigorous action; and while he was there they resolved to reinforce the army at New York, with thirteen thousand eight hundred militia, drawn from Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey; and a flying camp of ten thousand more, from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Delaware.

The Declaration of Independence by Congress, on the fourth of July, 1776, was received by General Washington, and read to the troops under his command on the ninth, at six o'clock in the evening; the regiments being paraded for the purpose. The document was read in the hearing of all, and received with the most hearty demonstrations of joy and satisfaction. In the orders of the day it was said, "The General hopes that this important event will serve as a fresh incentive to every officer and soldier to act with fidelity and courage, as knowing, that now the peace and safety of his country depend, under God, solely on the success of our arms, and that he is now in the service of a state possessed of sufficient power to reward his merit, and advance him to the highest honors of a free country."

Lord Howe arrived at Staten island on the twelfth of July, joining his brother, the General, with the expected additional forces from England. The command of the fleet had been conferred upon the former, and both the brothers were commissioners for restoring peace to the colonies. Lord Howe was not deterred by the declaration of independence from trying the influence of his powers for pacification, although he regarded the declaration as a circumstance unfavorable to the success of his mission. He sent on shore a circular letter, dated off the coast of Massachusetts, addressed severally to the late governors under the crown, (whom he supposed to be still in power) enclosing a declaration which he requested them to make public. It announced his authority to grant pardons, and to declare any colony or place under the protection of the king. Assurances



were also given that the meritorious services of all persons who would aid in restoring tranquillity in the colonies would be duly considered.

These papers were transmitted by the commander-in-chief to Congress, who directed their publication, that the people "might be informed of what nature were the commissioners, and what the terms with the expectation of which the insidious court of Britain had sought to amuse and disarm them."

About the same time Lord Howe despatched a letter to General Washington by a flag, which the general refused to receive, as it did not acknowledge the public character with which he was invested, being directed "*To George Washington, Esq.*" The course pursued was approved by Congress, and a resolve was passed, that in future no letters should be received from the enemy, by commanders in the American army, which should not be directed to them in the characters they sustained. A few days afterward General Howe wrote to Washington, repeating the same superscription as had been used by his brother. This letter was likewise refused, but an explanation took place through an interview between Colonel Patterson, adjutant-general of the British army, and General Washington. General Howe was induced to change his superscription, and from that time all letters addressed by the British commanders to General Washington bore his proper titles.

In the conference between Washington and Colonel Patterson, the adjutant-general observed that "the commissioners were armed with great powers, and would be very happy in effecting an accommodation." General Washington replied, "that from what appeared, these powers were only to grant pardons; that they who had committed no fault wanted no pardon."

General Howe, perceiving that all attempts at conciliation were hopeless, prepared for the operations of the campaign. He, however, delayed for some time active measures, as he was still waiting for further reinforcements. This period was employed by Washington in strengthening his works on New York island. Fort Washington, on an eminence in the north part of the island, on the east bank of the Hudson, and Fort Lee, on the opposite shore in New Jersey, were commenced, and between these forts the channel of the river was obstructed by hulks of vessels and chevaux-de-frise. Batteries were erected on the margins of the North and East rivers—redoubts were thrown up at different places, and the island generally placed in a state of defense.

The British reinforcements had all arrived by the middle of August, and the aggregate of their army was estimated at over twenty-four thousand men. To this army, aided in its operations by a numerous fleet, was opposed the American army, a force unstable in its nature, incapable from its structure of receiving discipline, and inferior to the enemy in numbers, in army, and in every military equipment. In a letter dated the 8th of August, General Washington stated his army consisted of only seventeen thousand two hundred and twenty-five men, of whom three thousand six hundred and sixty-eight were sick. This force was rendered the more inadequate to its objects by being necessarily divided for the defense of posts, some of which were fifteen miles distant from others, with navigable waters between them. The army was soon afterward reinforced by regulars and militia, which augmented it to twenty-seven thousand men, of

whom one-fourth were sick. The diseases incident to new troops prevailed extensively, and were aggravated by a deficiency of tents.

The American troops were so judiciously distributed on York island, Long island, Governor's island, Paulus Hook, and on the sound toward New Rochelle, East and West Chester, that the enemy were very cautious in determining when or where to commence offensive operations. Every probable point of embarkation was watched, and guarded with a force sufficient to embarrass, though very insufficient to prevent a landing. From the arrival of the British army at Staten island, the Americans were in daily expectation of being attacked. General Washington was therefore strenuous in preparing his troops for action. He tried every expedient to kindle in their breasts the love of their country, and a high tone of indignation against its invaders. Thus did he, by infusing into every bosom those sentiments which would stimulate to the greatest individual exertion, endeavor to compensate for the want of arms, of discipline, and of numbers.

Early in the morning of the twenty-second of August, the principal part of the British Army landed on Long island, under cover of the guns of the fleet; and extended their line from the Narrows, through Utrecht and Gravesend, to the village of Flatbush. On the twenty-seventh, the fifth day after landing, a general action took place between the two armies; the Americans on Long island, then commanded by General Putnam, being attacked by the British army, under General Clinton. The variety of ground, and the different parties employed in different places, both in the attack and defense, occasioned a succession of small engagements, pursuits and slaughter, which lasted for many hours.

The Americans were defeated in all directions. The circumstances which eminently contributed to this, were the superior discipline of the assailants, and the want of early intelligence of their movements. There was not a single corps of cavalry in the American army. The transmission of intelligence was of course always slow, and often impracticable. From the want of it, some of their detachments, while retreating before one portion of the enemy, were advancing toward another, of whose movements they were ignorant.

In the height of the engagement Washington passed over to Long island, and with infinite regret saw the slaughter of his best troops, but had not the power to prevent it; for had he drawn his whole force to their support he must have risked everything on a single engagement. He adopted the wiser plan of evacuating the island, with all the forces he could bring off. In superintending this necessary, but difficult and dangerous movement, and the events of the preceding day, Washington was indefatigable. For forty-eight hours he never closed his eyes, and was almost constantly on horseback. In less than thirteen hours the field artillery, tents, baggage, and about nine thousand men, were conveyed from Long island to the city of New York, over the East river, and without the knowledge of the British, though not six hundred yards distant. The darkness of the night and a heavy fog in the morning, together with a fair wind after midnight, favored this retreat. It was completed without interruption some time after the dawning of the day.

The loss of the Americans at the battle of Long island, was twelve hundred men, about a thousand of whom were captured. The loss of the British was less than four hundred.



Immediately after the success of the British arms on Long island, Admiral Lord Howe, as one of the king's pacificators, made another attempt at negotiation. He admitted General Sullivan, who had been taken prisoner, to his parole, and sent him to Philadelphia with a verbal message to Congress, the purport of which was, that although not authorized to treat with Congress as such, it being an illegal assembly, yet he was desirous of conferring with some of its members as private gentlemen only, whom he would meet at any place they might appoint. To this, Congress sent a reply by General Sullivan, refusing to authorize any of their body to confer with his lordship in their private capacity; but saying that they would send a committee to inquire into his authority to treat with persons authorized by Congress, and to hear his propositions for peace. Instructions were at the same time sent to General Washington by Congress, that no propositions for peace ought to be received, unless directed in writing to the representatives of the United States; and to inform those who might make application for a treaty, that Congress would cheerfully conclude a treaty of peace whenever such should be proposed to them as representatives of an independent people.

Doctor Franklin, John Adams and Edward Rutledge, were appointed by Congress to confer with Lord Howe, whom they met for that purpose on Staten Island. As Lord Howe declined conferring with the committee, except as private gentlemen, he being unauthorized to recognize Congress as a legal body, the conference terminated without effecting anything. The commissioners absolutely refused to entertain any propositions except they were made to them as the representatives of a free and independent people. The interview was therefore closed, with the understanding that war or absolute independence were the only alternatives that the Americans chose to recognize.

General Howe now took measures to drive the Americans out of the city of New York. He made preparations to have troops landed from the ships on opposite sides of the upper part of the island, while the main body of the fleet entered the harbor, and took a position nearly within cannon-shot of the city. By this arrangement the Americans would be hemmed in, and be compelled to evacuate the city, or suffer the privations and dangers of a siege.

Viewing these preparations of the British commander with alarm, Washington called a council of war on the twelfth of September, sixteen days after the battle of Long island, and recommended an immediate withdrawal of the troops. This measure was finally determined upon, and with great activity the Americans commenced removing the artillery and stores far above the city, to Dobb's ferry, on the Western shore of the Hudson. The commander-in-chief retired to the heights of Harlem, and a force of nine thousand men was stationed at Mount Washington, King's bridge, and other posts in the vicinity, while about five thousand remained near the city. The residue were placed between these extreme points, to act at either place, as occasion might require.

On the fifteenth, a division of the British army landed at Kipp's bay, on the East river, three miles above the city, and attacked the American batteries erected there. The troops stationed at this place fled with precipitation, without waiting for the approach of the enemy. Two brigades were put in motion to support them. General Washington rode to the scene of

action, and to his great mortification met the whole party retreating. While he was exerting himself to rally them, on the appearance of a small corps of the enemy, they again broke and ran off in disorder. Such dastardly conduct raised a tempest in the usually tranquil mind of Washington. He viewed with infinite concern this behavior of his troops, as threatening ruin to his country. His soul was harrowed up with apprehensions that his country would be conquered, her army disgraced, and her liberties destroyed, while the unsuccessful issue of the present struggle would, for ages to come, deter posterity from the bold design of asserting their rights. Impressed with these ideas, he hazarded his person for some considerable time in the rear of his own men, and in front of the enemy, with his horse's head toward the latter, as if in expectation that, by an honorable death, he might escape the infamy he dreaded from the dastardly conduct of troops in whom he could place no dependence. His aids, and the confidential friends around his person, by indirect violence, compelled him to retire. In consequence of their address and importunity, a life was saved for public service, which otherwise, from a sense of honor and a gust of passion, seemed to be devoted to almost certain destruction.

The troops referred to continued their retreat, until they reached the main body of the army at Harlem heights. The division in or near the city, under the command of General Putnam, retreated with great difficulty, leaving behind them their heavy artillery, and a large portion of the baggage, provisions, and military stores, including the tents, which had not been removed. The loss of the tents was severely felt by the army, at the approach of winter. Fifteen of the Americans were killed, and three hundred taken prisoners. The British army entered the city without much loss and took formal possession of it, to the great joy of the tories; but they had hardly become quiet before a fire broke out, which raged until it had destroyed about a third of the city.

General Howe having organized a temporary government, and left some troops in the city, marched with the main body of his army up York island, and encamped near the American lines in front of Harlem heights. The British lines extended across the island, while their shipping defended their flanks. Washington had made his strongest post at King's bridge, as that preserved his communication with the country. On the day after the retreat from New York, a skirmish took place between advanced parties of both armies, in which the Americans gained a decided advantage, though with the loss of two gallant officers, Colonel Knowlton of Connecticut, and Major Leitch of Virginia. This was the first advantage the army under the command of Washington had gained in the campaign. Its influence on the army was great, and the general gave public thanks to the troops engaged therein.

On the twenty-second of October, Washington fell back to White Plains, in Westchester county, and on the twenty-eighth, a partial action was fought there, which resulted in the repulse of the Americans, with some loss. Washington retired to Northcastle, five miles farther north, and Howe discontinued further pursuit, directing his attention to the American posts on the Hudson river. Forts Washington and Mifflin were taken by the British army in November, the garrison in the former consisting of nearly three thousand men, surrendering as prisoners-of-war, and the British losing about a thousand men in the assault. The garrison in Fort Mifflin



made a hasty retreat, and joined the main army, leaving behind them their cannon, tents and stores, which fell into the hands of the victors.

It having become evident to General Washington, that General Howe had changed his plan of operations, and designed an invasion of New Jersey, he crossed the North river with the American army, and, retreating before Lord Cornwallis, who had entered New Jersey with six thousand men, he took post along the Hackensack river. His situation there was nearly similar to that which he had abandoned; for he was liable to be enclosed between the Hackensack and Passaic rivers. He therefore, on the approach of the enemy, passed over to Newark, on the west side of the latter river, where he stood his ground some days; but being incapable of any effectual opposition, he retreated to New Brunswick, on the day Lord Cornwallis entered Newark. At New Brunswick, Washington kept his troops in motion, and even advanced a detachment, as if intending to engage the enemy. Nor did he quit his position till their advanced guards were in sight. He then retreated toward Trenton, pursuing a route near the Raritan river, that he might be in the way to prevent General Howe from throwing in a strong detachment between him and Philadelphia. Although this retreat was effected without loss from the enemy, the small force which began it was daily lessening, by the expiration of the term of service for which they were engaged. This terminated in November with many, and in December with nearly two-thirds of the residue. No persuasions were availing to induce their continuance. They abandoned their general when the advancing enemy was nearly in sight. General Lee, who commanded the eastern troops at White Plains, was ordered by Washington to cross the North river, and join the retreating army in New Jersey. Lee was so tardy in obeying the order, that he was three weeks reaching Morristown. While on his march he lodged one night at a house about three miles from camp, where he was taken prisoner by a company of British light-horse. The command of his division devolved on General Sullivan, who marched it to the main army. Four regiments under General Gates, soon after arrived from Ticonderoga. These forces, with others, joined Washington after he had crossed the Delaware with his army of about three thousand men, which he accomplished on the seventh of December. The enemy did not attempt to cross the river, General Howe contenting himself with having overrun New Jersey. It was, however, expected that, as soon as the ice should become sufficiently strong, the enemy would cross the Delaware, and bring all their force to bear upon Philadelphia. Anticipating this event, Congress adjourned to Baltimore; and General Putnam, who took the command of the militia in Philadelphia, was instructed to prepare for an obstinate defence of that city.

In this very dangerous crisis, and which may be considered the most gloomy period of the war, Washington made every exertion to procure reinforcements. These exertions were in a great measure unavailing, except in and near Philadelphia. Fifteen hundred of the citizens of that metropolis marched to the aid of Washington. The American army now amounted to about seven thousand men, after the arrival of the forces under Sullivan and Gates. The two armies were separated from each other by the river Delaware. The British, in the security of conquest, cantoned their troops in Burlington, Bordentown, Trenton, and other towns of New Jersey. On receiving information of their numbers and different canton-

ments, Washington observed: "Now is the time to clip their wings, when they are so spread." Yielding to his native spirit of enterprise, which had hitherto been repressed, he formed the bold design of recrossing the Delaware, and attacking the British posts on its eastern banks.

In a letter to Joseph Reed, dated Bristol, Pennsylvania, December 23, 1776, Washington thus discloses his designs:

"Christmas-day, at night, one hour before day, is the time fixed upon for our attempt on Trenton; our numbers, sorry am I to say, being less than I had any conception of; but necessity, dire necessity, will, nay must, justify an attack."

The desperate situation of the American cause at this time is thus alluded to by him, in a letter to his brother, John Augustine Washington, dated December 18, 1776:

"We were obliged to cross the Delaware with less than three thousand men fit for duty; the enemy's numbers, from the best accounts, exceeding ten or twelve thousand men.

"Since I came on this side I have been joined by about two thousand of the city militia, and I understand that some of the country militia are on their way; but we are in a very disaffected part of the province, and, between you and me, I think our affairs are in a very bad condition.

"You can form no idea of the perplexity of my situation. No man, I believe, ever had a greater choice of difficulties, and less means to extricate himself from them. However, under a full conviction of the justice of our cause, I cannot entertain an idea that it will finally sink, though it may remain for a time under a cloud."

In the evening of Christmas-day, General Washington made arrangements for passing over the Delaware, in three divisions. At Trenton were three regiments of Hessians, amounting to about fifteen hundred men, and a troop of British light-horse. Small detachments of the British army were stationed at Bordentown, Burlington, Black Horse, and Mount Holly. General Cadwallader was to cross at Bristol, and attack the latter posts; General Ewing was to cross a little below Trenton, to intercept the retreat of the enemy in that direction, while the commander-in-chief, with twenty-four hundred continental troops, should cross nine miles above Trenton, to make the principal attack. But Generals Cadwallader and Ewing were unable to pass, from the quantity of floating ice which obstructed the boats. The division commanded by Washington, accompanied by Generals Greene, Sullivan, Stirling, Mercer, and St. Clair, alone succeeded. These troops began to cross early in the evening, but were so retarded by ice, that it was nearly four o'clock in the morning of the twenty-sixth, before the whole body, with the artillery, was landed on the New Jersey bank of the river. They were formed in two divisions, and marched by different roads to Trenton, where they arrived within three minutes of each other, about eight o'clock in the morning. They met with but slight opposition, except from two or three pieces of artillery, which were soon taken. The surprised Hessians attempted a retreat to Princeton, but were intercepted, and, finding themselves surrounded, soon laid down their arms, and surrendered as prisoners of war. Between thirty and forty Hessians, among whom was Colonel Bahl, their commander, were killed. The American loss was two privates killed, and two others frozen to death. Captain William Washington, distinguished at a later period of the war as an officer of



cavalry, and Lieutenant James Monroe, afterward president of the United States, were wounded in taking the enemy's artillery. The number of prisoners was nearly one thousand, and the trophies of victory were six brass field pieces, a thousand stand of arms, and considerable ammunition. The British light-horse, and about five hundred Hessians, escaped at the beginning of the action, and fled to Bordentown, where they joined the British and Hessian troops in that vicinity, and all retreated to Princeton; thus the whole line of the enemy's encampments on the Delaware was broken up. It was thought most prudent by Washington to recross the Delaware, with all his prisoners and military stores, on the same day, which he accomplished the same evening, and gained his encampment on the Pennsylvania side.

This brilliant exploit of Washington, and unexpected success of the continental troops under his command, electrified the American people, particularly those of the middle states, who were either desponding or disaffected at the aspect of affairs, before the tables were turned by this fortunate event. The British generals, Howe and Cornwallis, were astonished and bewildered at this display of vigor on the part of the American general. Previous to this affair at Trenton, New Jersey appeared to be subdued, Pennsylvania was supposed to be anxious for British pardon, and instead of offensive operations, the total dispersion of the small remnant of the American army was confidently anticipated. Finding that he was contending with an adversary who could never cease to be formidable, and that the conquest of America was more difficult than had been supposed, Gen. Howe determined, in the depth of winter, to commence active operations. Lord Cornwallis, who had retired to New York, with the intention of embarking for England, returned to New Jersey in great force, for the purpose of recovering the ground which had been lost. The British army was assembled at Princeton, with the design of making an attack upon the Americans under Washington, who had again crossed the Delaware, and taken post at Trenton, determined to act on the offensive, after being joined by considerable reinforcements of regulars and militia.

Lord Cornwallis advanced on the morning of the second of January, 1777, and his van reached Trenton the same afternoon. On its approach, General Washington retired across the creek which runs through the town. The British finding the fords of the creek well guarded, desisted from attempts to cross, and kindled their fires. The Americans kindled their fires likewise, and a cannonade was kept up till dark.

The situation of General Washington was once more extremely critical. The passage of the Delaware was rendered difficult by the ice, and if he remained at Trenton, an attack on the following morning, by an overwhelming force, seemed certain, which must render the destruction of his army inevitable. In this embarrassing state of things, he formed the bold design of abandoning the Delaware, and marching by a circuitous route along the left flank of the British army, into its rear at Princeton; and, after beating the troops at that place, to move rapidly on Brunswick, where the baggage and principal magazines of the British army lay, under a weak guard.

This plan being approved by a council of war, Washington silently withdrew his army from Trenton, favored by the darkness of the night, while the enemy were at rest; leaving a few of his men at work with pickaxes, and the camp fires kindled, for the purpose of deceiving the

British into the belief that the Americans were throwing up intrenchments. Before dawn these men left their work, and hastened to join the American army, who were then on a rapid march toward Princeton, where three British regiments had encamped the preceding night. Two of these regiments, commencing their march toward Trenton early in the morning, to join the rear of their army, met the Americans a mile and a half from Trenton. The morning being foggy, the enemy at first mistook the Americans for Hessians, but the mistake was soon discovered, and a smart skirmish ensued. The British commander sent to Princeton for the other regiment, which was soon on the spot, and after a battle of more than an hour, the American militia gave way in disorder. Gen. Mercer, attempting to rally them, was mortally wounded. Washington pushed forward at the head of his division, and rallied the flying troops, who, encouraged by his example, made a stand, and compelled the British to retreat in various directions. In the course of the engagement, one hundred of the enemy were killed and wounded, and about three hundred taken prisoners. The rest made their escape; some by pushing on to Trenton, others by returning to Brunswick. The American loss was about one hundred.

At break of day Lord Cornwallis perceived, to his great astonishment, that the Americans had deserted their camp at Trenton, and at once penetrating the designs of Washington upon New Brunswick, marched hastily toward that place to protect his stores there, and was close in the rear of the Americans, before they could leave Princeton. General Washington, finding his army exhausted with fatigue, and closely pursued by a superior force, abandoned the remaining part of his original plan, and took the road leading up the country to the north. Lord Cornwallis continued his march to Brunswick, and Washington retired to Morristown, where he established his headquarters. Having given his army some repose, he entered the field again in an offensive attitude, and in a short time overran the whole country, as far as the Raritan to the south. He also took possession of Newark, Elizabethtown, and Woodbridge. The British army, meanwhile, was restricting its operations to a small part of New Jersey.

The victories of Trenton and Princeton produced the most extensive effects, and had a decided influence on subsequent events. Philadelphia was saved for that winter, New Jersey was mostly recovered from the enemy, and the drooping spirits of the Americans were revived. Their gloomy apprehensions yielded to a confidence in their general and their army, and in the ultimate success of their struggles for liberty and independence.

Gen. Washington had been invested by Congress a few days before the successful affair at Trenton, with additional and extraordinary powers as commander-in-chief, which additional powers were conferred on him for a period of six months, and the wisdom of the measure was soon seen and felt by the favorable turn of American affairs. After the recent successes, he hoped that his country would have placed at his disposal a large and sufficient army, to enable him to undertake decisive operations before reinforcements to the British army should arrive in the ensuing spring. Congress, at his instance, passed the requisite resolutions; but these could not be carried into effect without the aid of the state legislatures. The recruiting service was therefore retarded by the delays consequent upon the action of thirteen legislative bodies, and Washington, with infinite reluctance, was



obliged to give up his favorite project of an early active campaign. The remainder of the winter season passed over in a light war of skirmishes. They were generally in favor of the Americans; but Washington's views were much more extensive; he cherished hopes of being able to strike a decisive blow against the British forces during the winter, but being disappointed, he went into winter-quarters with the main army, at Morristown. Cantonments were likewise established at various points from Princeton on the right, where General Putnam commanded, to the Highlands on the left, which post continued under the charge of General Heath. The first care of General Washington, after putting the troops in winter-quarters, was drawn to the completion of the army for the next campaign; and he wrote circular letters to the governors of the middle and eastern states, urging them to adopt prompt and effectual methods for raising recruits, and filling up their regiments. To stimulate the activity of the States, by reiterated representations to their governors and legislatures, by argument, persuasion, and appeals to every motive of pride, honor and patriotism, was the task which he was obliged to repeat every winter; and this was a source of increasing anxiety, from the time the troops went into winter-quarters till they again took the field to combat the enemy. Congress, embarrassed by the indefinite nature of their powers, deliberated with caution, and were seldom ready to act in military affairs, till incited by the counsels or earnest entreaties of the commander-in-chief.

As the recruits for the American army were collected, the camp at Morristown was broken up, and the army assembled on the twenty-eighth of May, 1777, at Middlebrook, in New Jersey, ten miles from Brunswick. The exertions made during the winter by the commander-in-chief, to raise a powerful army for the ensuing campaign, had not been successful. On the twentieth of May, the total of the army in New Jersey, excluding cavalry and artillery, amounted to only eight thousand three hundred and seventy-eight men, of whom upward of two thousand were sick, and more than half were raw recruits. Anticipating a movement of the British army toward Philadelphia, Washington had given orders for assembling an army of militia, with a few continental troops, on the western bank of the Delaware, to be commanded by General Arnold. The primary objects to which Washington directed his attention in this campaign, were to endeavor to prevent the British from obtaining possession of Philadelphia, or the Highlands on the Hudson river, and he made such an arrangement of his troops as would enable him to oppose either. The northern troops were divided between Ticonderoga and Peekskill, while those from New Jersey, and other middle states, were encamped at Middlebrook.

On the twelfth of June, General Howe assembled the main body of his army at Brunswick, in New Jersey, and gave strong indications of an intention to reach Philadelphia by land. The American army under Washington, was now swelled to about fourteen thousand. Howe feigned a design to cross the Delaware, by making toward that river, but failing to draw Washington into a general engagement, by his various manœuvres, he withdrew his forces to Amboy, and passed over to Staten island, leaving the Americans in quiet possession of New Jersey. Having abandoned the idea of forming a junction with General Burgoyne, who, having arrived from England with a powerful army, was invading the northern states by way of Canada, General Howe turned his attention toward Philadelphia.

He resolved to proceed to that city by way of the Chesapeake bay, and accordingly embarked at Staten island, with about eighteen thousand troops, on board of the British fleet under Lord Howe. He left Sir Henry Clinton, with a large force, to defend New York, and in the latter part of July appeared off the capes of Delaware; but the fleet suddenly again put to sea, and its destination was for some time a matter of uncertainty to the Americans. In the meanwhile, Washington marched the main body of his army to Germantown, to await certain information respecting the movements of General Howe. During his suspense he took an opportunity of conferring with committees of Congress, at Philadelphia; and it was at this time that he had his first interview with the Marquis de Lafayette, on his arrival from France, to offer his services to the Americans. Congress appointed the marquis a major-general in the army, and he was invited by General Washington to become a member of his military family, which position he maintained during the war.

The British fleet having sailed up the Chesapeake, reached Elk river on the twenty-fifth of August, where the troops under General Howe were landed, and commenced their march toward Philadelphia. The day before the landing of the British, the American army marched through Philadelphia, toward Wilmington, in Delaware. Advance parties from each army soon met, and several skirmishes took place.

As the British army approached, Washington took post on the river Brandywine, and awaited the attack of the enemy. A general action took place early on the eleventh of September, which continued all day, and terminated in favor of the British, who remained in possession of the field of battle, while the Americans retreated to Chester, and the following day to Philadelphia.

The British force in this engagement, was stated at about eighteen thousand; that of the Americans a little over eleven thousand. The American loss in killed, wounded and prisoners, was over a thousand; that of the British was less than six hundred.

Washington made every exertion to repair the loss which had been sustained. The battle of Brandywine was represented as not being decisive. Congress and the people wished to hazard a second engagement, for the security of Philadelphia; General Howe sought for it, and Washington did not decline it. He therefore advanced on the Lancaster road, with an intention of meeting the British army. Both armies were on the point of engaging, but were prevented by a violent storm. When the rain ceased, the Americans, finding that their ammunition was ruined, withdrew to a place of safety. The British, instead of urging an action, afterward began to march toward Reading. To save the stores at that place, Washington took a new position, and left the British in undisturbed possession of the roads which led to Philadelphia. His troops were worn down with a succession of severe duties. There were in his army above a thousand men who were barefooted, and who had performed all their late movements in that condition.

Though Washington had failed in his object of saving Philadelphia, yet he retained the confidence of Congress and the states. With an army inferior in numbers, discipline and equipments, he had delayed the British army thirty days in advancing sixty miles through an open country, without fortifications.



The British army entered Philadelphia on the twenty-sixth of September, and pushed forward to Germantown. Congress had previously adjourned to Lancaster. While the British camp at Germantown was weakened by detachments sent against the American forts on the Delaware, Gen. Washington, having received considerable reinforcements to his army, resolved to attack the enemy in their encampment. Accordingly, in the evening of the third of October, the Americans advanced in four divisions, and after a march of fourteen miles to Germantown, at daybreak the next morning took the British by surprise. A battle commenced, and for a time victory seemed to incline to the Americans; but finally, after a severe action, they were repulsed with great slaughter, losing about eleven hundred men, in killed, wounded and prisoners. The British loss was not more than half that number. General Howe shortly after evacuated Germantown, and concentrated his forces at Philadelphia, where the British army under his command took up their winter-quarters. Howe at first directed his attention to the opening of the navigation of the Delaware river, which had been obstructed by many ingenious contrivances placed there by the Americans. This task employed the British for more than six weeks; and after a great display of gallantry on both sides, it was finally accomplished.

When the Delaware was cleared, and there was a free inland communication for the British between Philadelphia and New York, General Howe determined to close the campaign by an attack upon Washington, then stationed at Whitemarsh, about eleven miles from Philadelphia. On the night of the fourth of December, Howe marched out of the city and took post upon Chestnut Hill, in front of the American army, which had been reinforced by detachments from the northern army. Finding Washington's position too strong to risk a general attack, after a few days' skirmishing, Howe fell back upon Philadelphia.

While the British arms were successful on the banks of the Delaware, intelligence arrived that General Burgoyne and the British army of the north, had surrendered prisoners-of-war to the American northern army, under General Gates. This event took place at Saratoga, in the state of New York, on the seventeenth of October. On the receipt of this important information, General Washington took measures to obtain large reinforcements to the forces under his immediate command, from the victorious troops of the north. He therefore deputed one of his aids, Colonel Alexander Hamilton, to wait on General Gates, and communicate his wishes to that officer. In his letter of instructions to Hamilton, Gen. Washington writes as follows, under date of October 30, 1777:

"It has been judged expedient by the members of a council of war held yesterday, that one of the gentlemen of my family should be sent to General Gates, in order to lay before him the state of this army, and the situation of the enemy, and to point out to him the many happy consequences that will accrue from an immediate reinforcement being sent from the northern army. I have thought proper to appoint you to that duty, and desire that you will immediately set out for Albany.

"What you are chiefly to attend to is, to point out to General Gates the absolute necessity that there is for his detaching a very considerable part of the army at present under his command, to the reinforcement of this; a measure that will, in all probability, reduce General Howe to the same

situation in which General Burgoyne now is, should he attempt to remain in Philadelphia.

"I have understood that General Gates has already detached Nixon's and Glover's brigades to join General Putnam. If this be a fact, you are to desire General Putnam to send the two brigades forward with the greatest expedition, as there can be no occasion for them there."

To the president of Congress, Washington also wrote on the first of November, as follows: "I cannot conceive that there is any object now remaining, that demands our attention and most vigorous efforts so much as the destruction of the [British] army in this quarter. Should we be able to effect this, we shall have little to fear in future." And on the seventeenth of November, he wrote to the same functionary thus: "I am anxiously waiting the arrival of the troops from the northward, who ought to have been here before this. The want of these troops has embarrassed all my measures exceedingly."

Instead of promptly seconding the desires of Washington, when communicated to them by Hamilton, Generals Gates and Putnam were unwilling to part with a sufficient number of the troops under their respective commands to effect the object designed. The former general was then contemplating an expedition to Ticonderoga, and the latter an attack on the British forces in New York. After considerable delay, those generals, at the earnest request of Colonel Hamilton, finally sent on about five thousand men to the aid of General Washington; but in the mean time Sir Henry Clinton, who commanded the British forces stationed at the city of New York, detached about six thousand men to the aid of General Howe in Philadelphia.

Thus will it be seen that the well-formed plans of General Washington, to follow up the capture of the British army under Burgoyne, by that of the forces under Howe, were frustrated by the want of cordial coöperation on the part of Gates and Putnam. Had Washington succeeded, by their prompt aid, in effecting his purpose at Philadelphia, he would doubtless have moved upon New York, and by an attack upon that city, with the whole American forces, have either compelled the surrender of the forces under Sir Henry Clinton, or the evacuation by them of that point; and thus the campaign of 1777 would have been closed by a succession of American victories and British reverses, from which the latter could not have recovered. Is it too much to say that in that event Great Britain would have sought for peace in 1778, as she did afterward in 1782, and that the American alliance with France would have thus been rendered unnecessary? This view is confirmed by the correspondence of Washington, who evidently was of opinion that a protracted war for years was unnecessary. In a letter to John Parke Custis, dated February 28, 1781, more than three years after the fall of Philadelphia, he says, "We have brought a cause, which might have been happily *terminated years ago*, by the adoption of proper measures, to the very verge of ruin," &c.

The following extract of a letter from Washington to Patrick Henry, dated November 13, 1777, soon after the British had entered Philadelphia, throws farther light upon the state of affairs at this period, and shows particularly that Washington's army had been weakened by reinforcements sent to the aid of General Gates:

"I was left to fight two battles, in order, if possible, to save Philadel



phia, with less numbers than composed the army of my antagonist, while the world has given us double.

"How different is the case in the northern department. There the states of New York and New England, resolving to crush Burgoyne, continued pouring in their troops till the surrender of that army. Had the same spirit pervaded the people of this and the neighboring states, we might before this time have had General Howe nearly in the situation of General Burgoyne.

"My own difficulties in the course of the campaign have been not a little increased by the extra aid of continental troops which the gloomy prospect of our affairs, immediately after the reduction of Ticonderoga, induced me to spare from this army."

The campaign of 1777 having closed, Washington communicated in general orders his intention of retiring with his army into winter-quarters. He expressed to his officers and soldiers his high approbation of their past conduct; gave an encouraging statement of the prospects of the country, and exhorted the men to bear the hardships inseparable from their condition. Valley Forge, about twenty miles northwest from Philadelphia, was selected by Washington for the winter-quarters of the army. This position was preferred to distant and more comfortable villages, as being calculated to give security to the country from the enemy. In the latter end of December, the troops were compelled to build huts for their own accommodation, and during the winter, which was unusually severe, their sufferings being great, from want of both clothing and food, Washington was compelled to make seizures from the inhabitants, as he was authorized by Congress to do, for the sustenance of the army. The commander-in-chief and his principal officers sent for their wives, from the different states to which they belonged, to pass the winter with their husbands at headquarters.

To the other vexations and troubles which crowded on General Washington at this time, was added one of a peculiar nature. This was the formation of a cabal among members of Congress, and a few officers in the northern division of the army, the object of which was to supersede him in the command of the army, or to induce his resignation. This intrigue is known in American history as *Conway's cabal*. Generals Gates, Mifflin and Conway, are the only officers of note who are known to have been engaged in it. The former of these generals was proposed to supersede Washington. About the same time a board of war was created by Congress, of which General Gates was appointed president.

These machinations did not abate the ardor of Washington in the common cause. His patriotism was too solid to be shaken, either by envy or ingratitude. Nor was the smallest effect produced in diminishing his well-earned reputation. Zeal the most active, and services the most beneficial, and at the same time disinterested, had riveted him in the affections of his country and the army. Even the victorious troops under General Gates, though comparisons highly flattering to their vanity had been made between them and the army in Pennsylvania, clung to Washington as their political saviour. The resentment of the people was generally excited against those who were supposed to be engaged in, or friendly to, the scheme of appointing a new commander-in-chief of the American army.

The sufferings of the army while encamped at Valley Forge, are memorable in the history of the war. They were not only greatly in want of the

necessary supplies of food, but of blankets and clothing. "Naked and starving as they are," says Washington in one of his letters, "we cannot enough admire the incomparable patience and fidelity of the soldiery, that they have not been ere this excited by their sufferings, to a general mutiny and desertion." Although the officers were better provided than the soldiers, yet none were exempt from privations and hardships.

When the encampment was begun at Valley Forge, the whole number of men in the field was 11,098, of whom 2,898 were unfit for duty, "being barefoot and otherwise naked." Much of the suffering of the army was attributed to mismanagement in the quartermaster's department; while reforms on this subject were proposed in Congress, the distresses of the troops approached their acme. General Washington found it necessary to interpose his personal exertions to procure provisions from a distance. In a few days the army was rescued from the famine with which it had been threatened. It was perceived that the difficulties which had occurred, were occasioned more by the want of due exertion in the commissary department, and by the efforts of the people to save their stock for a better market, than by a real deficiency of food in the country.

The impression made on the British nation by the capitulation of Burgoyne, at length made its way into the cabinet, and Lord North brought into Parliament two bills, which were adopted, having conciliation for their object. The first surrendered the principle of taxation, and the second empowered the crown to appoint commissioners to treat for peace with the United States. This movement was prompted by the apprehension that France would acknowledge the independence of America, and join in the war against England.

The terms held out by these bills were such as would have been accepted by the Americans in the early stages of the controversy, but they now came too late. It was no part of the plan of the British ministers to treat with the American states as an independent power. They were to go back to their old condition as colonies, favored with certain privileges; but having declared their independence, and shed their blood, and expended their means to sustain it, these new offers of the British government were not likely to gain the confidence, or change the sentiments of those who had taken the lead in the cause of American liberty. Washington, in a letter to a member of Congress, after he had learned the purport of the conciliatory bills, expressed himself thus: "Nothing short of independence, it appears to me, can possibly do. A peace on other terms would, if I may be allowed the expression, be a peace of war. The injuries we have received from the British nation were so unprovoked, and have been so great and so many, that they can never be forgotten. Our fidelity as a people, our gratitude, our character as men, are opposed to a coalition with them as subjects, but in case of the last extremity." The subject appeared in the same light to Congress, and they unanimously resolved that no advances on the part of the British government would be met, unless, as a preliminary step, they either withdrew their armies and fleets, or acknowledged, unequivocally, the independence of the United States.

On the second of May, 1778, ten days after Congress had passed their resolves respecting Lord North's bill of conciliation, a messenger arrived in the United States, bearing treaties of amity, commerce, and alliance, between France and America, signed at Paris on the sixth of February,



1778, by which the independence of the United States was formally acknowledged by the former power. This intelligence was received with joy by the Americans, and the army participated in the rejoicings of the people on the occasion, and a day was set apart by the commander-in-chief for a public celebration in camp.

The British kept possession of Philadelphia through the winter and the spring following; and although Washington's camp was within twenty miles of the city, yet no enterprise was undertaken to molest him in his quarters. Foraging parties were sent out, and committed depredations on the inhabitants; but they were watched by the Americans, who sometimes met them in fierce and bloody rencontres. The British army in New York and Philadelphia, amounted to nearly thirty thousand, of which number 19,500 were in Philadelphia, and 10,400 in New York. There were besides 3,700 at Rhode Island. The American army on the 8th of May, 1778, did not exceed 15,000 men, including the detachments on the North river, and at other places. The number at Valley Forge was 11,800. The new establishment agreed upon by a committee of Congress at Valley Forge, was to consist of forty thousand continental troops, besides artillery and horse; but it was not supposed by a council of war, held on the eighth of May, that it could soon be raised higher than twenty thousand effective men, while the British army in the middle and eastern states amounted, as above stated, to upward of thirty-three thousand men.

Sir William Howe, having at his own request been recalled, resigned the command of the British army to Sir Henry Clinton, and embarked for England. About the same time, orders were received for the evacuation of Philadelphia. The great naval force of France rendered the city a dangerous position, and determined the British cabinet to withdraw their army from the Delaware.

On the morning of the eighteenth of June, Philadelphia was evacuated by the British army, which crossed the Delaware, and landed on Gloucester point. Their line extended nearly twelve miles, and as they were encumbered with numerous wagons, and compelled to stop and build bridges over the streams in their route, their progress was slow. It was the first purpose of Sir Henry Clinton to proceed to the Raritan, and embark his troops at Brunswick, or South Amboy, for New York; but finding Washington with his army in motion in that direction, he turned to the right, and took the road leading to Monmouth and Sandy Hook.

A council of war, called by Washington, to discuss the best mode of attacking the enemy on their march, was divided in opinion; Gen. Lee and others advising to avoid a general battle, but to harass the enemy upon flank and rear. Washington determined to act according to his own judgment, and sent forward a detachment to commence an attack, while he, with the rest of the army, followed to support the advance corps. Sir Henry Clinton, with the British army, encamped near Monmouth courthouse, whence they commenced their march on the twenty-eighth of June, and were attacked by the Americans. The battle became general, and lasted till night, when both armies remained on the field. The British troops withdrew during the night, and soon after proceeded to Sandy Hook, where they embarked on board a fleet for New York.

The battle of Monmouth, although favorable to the Americans, was not a decided victory; yet Congress viewed it somewhat in that light, and

passed a vote of thanks to the commander-in-chief and the army. The American loss was sixty-nine killed, while the British loss was much greater, being nearly three hundred. On their march through New Jersey, the British army lost by battle, captured as prisoners, and desertion, more than twelve hundred men. The conduct of General Lee at the battle of Monmouth, in ordering a hasty retreat of his detachment, and otherwise, was severely censured by Washington; he was consequently tried by a court-martial, found guilty of the charges against him, and suspended from his command for one year. He left the service, and died four years afterward, in Philadelphia.

After the action of Monmouth, General Washington marched with his army to the Hudson river, which he crossed, and encamped at White Plains, about twenty-five miles north of the city of New York. Before crossing the river, he heard of the arrival on the coast of a French fleet, under Count d'Estaing, consisting of twelve ships-of-the-line and four frigates. No time was lost by the American general in sending a letter of congratulation to the French admiral, and proposing to coöperate with him in plans for attacking the enemy. It was at first proposed to attack New York, by land and water; but the scheme was abandoned, and the French squadron sailed for Rhode Island, to attack the British forces there, chiefly in garrison at Newport. Various causes conspired to the failure of this expedition, by defeating the combined action of the land and naval forces. After leaving Newport, the French fleet was crippled by a storm and engagement at sea, and put into the harbor of Boston to refit, where they remained until November.

The American army was employed in various operations in the northern and eastern states, during the campaign of 1778, to guard against an apprehended attack by the British on Boston, or some other point at the eastward; but it was finally ascertained that the enemy had no design in that direction. Washington established his headquarters at Fredericksburg, thirty miles from West Point, on the borders of Connecticut, and at the close of the campaign put his army in winter-quarters at West Point, and at several other places, his headquarters being at Middlebrook, in New Jersey.

Notwithstanding the flattering prospects which the alliance with France held out for the American cause, General Washington at this time had many causes of anxiety which oppressed him, and filled his mind with the most gloomy feelings. Among the most prominent subjects of anxiety and apprehension, he viewed that of the apathy and dissensions among members of Congress, with alarm. The men of talent who had taken the lead in Congress, in the early period of the war, had gradually withdrawn from that body, until it had become small in numbers and comparatively feeble in counsels and resources. At no time were private jealousies and party feuds more rife or mischievous in their effects.

To those in whom he had confidence, Washington laid open his fears, and endeavored to awaken a sense of the public danger. To Benjamin Harrison, of Virginia, he thus writes, on the 30th of December, 1778: "I confess to you that I feel more real distress on account of the present appearances of things, than I have done at any one time since the commencement of the dispute. But Providence has heretofore taken us up,



when all other means and hope seemed to be departing from us. In this I will confide."

A project for conquering Canada was at this time entertained in Congress; but Washington, being requested to communicate his sentiments on the subject, replied in a long letter to Congress, showing that the plan was impracticable, requiring resources in troops and money which were not to be had; also, that there were political reasons why it would be against the future interests of the United States for Canada to be restored to France, as would probably be the case if conquered by the allied forces of France and America. He afterward, in December, 1777, visited Philadelphia; and on a more full discussion of the subject with a committee of Congress, the Canada scheme was given up. The French government was also decidedly opposed to it, and it was the policy of that court that Canada and Nova Scotia should remain in the power of Great Britain.

The winter and spring of 1779 passed away without the occurrence of any remarkable event. The British remained within their lines at New York, apparently making no preparation for any enterprise of magnitude. General Washington, in the meantime, turned his attention to the fitting out of an expedition against the hostile Indians in the state of New York. General Sullivan was despatched with a large force to the Susquehannah river, and was completely successful in subduing the Indians.

Washington removed his headquarters to New Windsor, a few miles above West Point, distributing his army chiefly in and near the highlands of the Hudson river, but stationing a force below, to check any sudden incursion of the enemy. Washington at this time resolved upon an attack on the strong British post at Stony Point, on the Hudson river, and intrusted the enterprise to General Wayne. That officer stormed the works on the night of the 15th of July, with a body of picked men, and the assault was successful in all its parts. The number of prisoners captured by the Americans was 543, and the number killed on the side of the British was 63; while the American loss was 15 killed, and 83 wounded.

The campaign of 1779 having terminated, the American army went into winter quarters; the main body in the neighborhood of Morristown, in New Jersey, and various detachments on the Hudson river and in Connecticut. The headquarters of Washington were at Morristown. A descent upon Staten island by a party of Americans under Lord Stirling, a retaliatory incursion of the enemy into New Jersey, and a skirmish near White Plains, were the only military events during the winter.

In April, 1780, the marquis de Lafayette arrived at Boston from France, with the cheering intelligence that the French government had fitted out an armament of naval and land forces, which might soon be expected in the United States. On the 10th of July, the French fleet arrived at Newport, in Rhode Island. The armament consisted of seven or eight ships-of-the-line, two frigates, two bombs, and upward of five thousand men. The fleet was commanded by De Ternay, and the army by Count de Rochambeau. The general and troops were directed by the French government to be in all cases under the command of General Washington.

Having a decided naval superiority, the British fleet, under Admiral Arbuthnot, blockaded the French squadron in the harbor of Newport, and Rochambeau's army was obliged to remain there for its protection. This

state of things continued through the season, and no military enterprise was undertaken. Both parties stood on the defensive, watching each other's motions, and depending on the operations of the British and French fleets. General Washington encamped on the west side of the Hudson, below Orangetown, or Tappan, on the borders of New Jersey, which station he held till winter.

A conference was held between the commanders of the two allied armies, being suggested by Rochambeau, and readily assented to by Washington. They met at Hartford, in Connecticut, on the 21st of September. During the absence of General Washington, the army was left under the command of General Greene. No definite plan of operations could be agreed upon between the American and French commanders, as a naval superiority was essential to any effectual enterprise by land, and the French fleet was inferior to that of the British naval force on the American station.

At this time General Arnold held the command at West Point, and other fortified posts on the Hudson river, in the highlands. On Washington's return to West Point from the conference with the French commander at Hartford, he was filled with astonishment at the discovery of a plot which had been formed between General Arnold and Sir Henry Clinton, to deliver up the American post to the enemy—the agent employed by the British General being Major John André, adjutant-general in the British army. On the detection of his treachery, Arnold fled to a British sloop-of-war in the Hudson river, immediately after the arrival of Washington at West Point, on the 25th of September. Major André had been taken by the Americans, and was soon after removed to the headquarters of the army at Tappan.

On discovering the treason of Arnold, Washington took immediate measures to secure the posts. Orders were despatched to all the principal officers, and every precaution was taken. It was soon ascertained by Washington that no other officer in the American army was implicated in the conspiracy of Arnold; and he forthwith ordered a court of inquiry, consisting of a board of general officers, for the trial of Major André. Various papers were laid before the board, which met on the twenty-ninth of September, and André himself was questioned and desired to make such statements and explanations as he chose. After a full investigation, the board reported the essential facts which had appeared, with their opinion that he was a spy and ought to suffer death. General Washington approved this decision, and Major André was executed at Tappan, on the second of October. He met his fate with composure and dignity.

While André's case was pending, Sir Henry Clinton used every effort in his power to rescue him from his fate. He wrote to General Washington, and endeavored to show that he could not be regarded as a spy, inasmuch as he came on shore at the request of an American general, and afterward acted by his direction. Connected with all the circumstances, this argument could have no weight. There was no stronger trait in the character of Washington than humanity; the misfortunes and sufferings of others touched him keenly; and his feelings were deeply moved at the part he was compelled to act, in consenting to the death of André; yet justice to the office he held, and to the cause for which his countrymen were shedding their blood, left him no alternative.

While these operations were going on at the north, all the intelligence



from the southern states showed that the American cause was in a gloomy condition in that quarter. The British forces under Lord Cornwallis were overrunning the Carolinas, and preparations were making in New York to detach a squadron with troops to fall upon Virginia. The city of Charleston had been taken by the British in May, 1780, and the American army of six thousand, under General Lincoln, stationed there, surrendered prisoners-of-war. The defeat of General Gates near Camden, in South Carolina, in August, was a heavy blow to the Americans. Congress requested General Washington to appoint an officer to succeed Gates in the command of the southern army. With his usual discrimination and judgment, he selected General Greene, who repaired to the theatre of action, in which he was so eminently distinguished during the subsequent years of the war.

Congress at length adopted the important measures, in regard to the army, which Washington had earnestly and repeatedly advised. They decreed that all the troops thenceforward to be raised, should be enlisted to serve during the war; and that all the officers who continued in the service to the end of the war, should be entitled to half-pay for life. Washington ever believed that if this system had been pursued from the beginning, it would have shortened the war, or at least have caused a great diminution of the expense. Unfortunately, the states did not comply with the former part of the requisition, but adhered to the old method of filling up their quotas with men raised for three years, and for shorter terms. The extreme difficulty of procuring recruits, was the reason assigned for persevering in this practice.

The army went into winter quarters at the end of November; the Pennsylvania line near Morristown, the New Jersey regiments at Pompton, and the eastern troops in the Highlands. The headquarters of the commander-in-chief were at New Windsor, on the Hudson river. The French army remained at Newport, Rhode Island, except the duke de Lauzun's legion, which was cantoned at Lebanon, in Connecticut.

Washington felt with infinite regret, the succession of abortive projects throughout the campaign of 1780. In that year he had indulged the hope of terminating the war. In a letter to a friend, he wrote as follows: "We are now drawing to a close an inactive campaign, the beginning of which appeared pregnant with events of a very favorable complexion. I hoped, but I hoped in vain, that a prospect was opening which would enable me to fix a period to my military pursuits, and restore me to domestic life." \* \* \* \* \* "But alas! these prospects, flattering as they were, have proved delusory; and I see nothing before us but accumulating distress. We have been half of our time without provisions, and are likely to continue so. We have no magazines, nor money to form them. We have lived upon expedients until we can live no longer. In a word, the history of the war is a history of false hopes and temporary devices, instead of system and economy. It is in vain, however, to look back; nor is it our business to do so. Our case is not desperate, if virtue exists in the people, and there is wisdom among our rulers. But to suppose that this great revolution can be accomplished by a temporary army, that this army will be subsisted by state supplies, and that taxation alone is adequate to our wants, is, in my opinion, absurd."

A dangerous mutiny broke out in January, 1781, among the Pennsylvania troops stationed near Morristown, which was suppressed by the

prudence and good management of Gen. Wayne, acting under the advice of Washington, and aided by a committee of Congress. The latter proposed terms to the revolvers, which were accepted. This mutiny was followed by a similar revolt of the New Jersey troops, which was promptly put down by an armed force under General Howe, by direction of Washington. Two of the ringleaders were tried by a court-martial and shot. By this summary proceeding, the spirit of mutiny in the army was subdued.

Colonel John Laurens, having been appointed on a mission to France, to obtain a loan and military supplies, Washington wrote a letter to that gentleman, in support of the application of Congress, which was first presented by the commissioner to Dr. Franklin, and afterward laid before the French king and cabinet. The French government having determined to grant the aid requested, previous to the arrival of Colonel Laurens, suggested that the money to be appropriated for the army, should be left at the disposal of General Washington.

On the first of May, 1781, General Washington commenced a military journal, from which the following is an extract: "I begin at this epoch a concise journal of military transactions, &c. I lament not having attempted it from the commencement of the war, in aid of my memory; and wish the multiplicity of matter which continually surrounds me, and the embarrassed state of our affairs, which is momentarily calling the attention to perplexities of one kind or another, may not defeat altogether, or so interrupt my present intention and plans, as to render it of little avail."

After briefly sketching the wants and condition of the army at the time, he adds: "In a word, instead of having anything in readiness to take the field, we have nothing; and instead of having the prospect of a glorious and offensive campaign before us, we have a bewildered and gloomy prospect of a defensive one; unless we should receive a powerful aid of ships, troops, and money, from our generous allies, and these at present are too contingent to build upon."

While the Americans were suffering the complicated calamities which introduced the year 1781, their adversaries were carrying on the most extensive plan of operations against them which had ever been attempted. The war raged in that year, not only in the vicinity of the British headquarters at New York, but in Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and in Virginia.

While the war raged in Virginia, the governor thereof, its representatives in Congress, and other influential citizens, urged his return, in defense of his native state. But, considering America as his country, and the general safety as his object, he deemed it of more importance to remain on the Hudson. In Washington's disregard of property, when in competition with national objects, he was in no respect partial to his own. While the British were in the Potomac, they sent a flag on shore to his estate at Mount Vernon requiring a fresh supply of provisions. To save the buildings from destruction his agent granted the supply of provisions required by the enemy. For this he received a severe reprimand from the general, who in a letter to the agent observed, that "it would have been a less painful circumstance to me to have heard, that in consequence of your noncompliance with the request of the British, they had burnt my house, and laid my plantation in ruins. You ought to have considered yourself as my representative, and should have reflected on the bad example of



communicating with the enemy, and making a voluntary offer of refreshment to them, with a view to prevent a conflagration."

Though, in conducting the war, General Washington often acted on the Fabian system, by evacuating, retreating, and avoiding decisive engagements, yet this was much more the result of necessity than of choice. His uniform opinion was in favor of energetic offensive operations, as the most effectual means of bringing the war to a termination. On this principle he planned attacks, in almost every year, on some one or other of the British armies or strong posts in the United States. He endeavored, from year to year, to stimulate the public mind to some great operation, but was never properly supported. In the years 1778, '79, and '80, the projected operations with the French, as has been related, entirely miscarried. The idea of ending the war by some decisive military exploit, continually occupied his active mind. To insure success, a naval superiority on the coast, and a loan of money, were indispensably necessary. To obtain these necessary aids, the French government were applied to, as already stated. His most Christian majesty (Louis XVI.) gave his American allies a subsidy of six millions of livres, and became their security for ten millions more, borrowed in Holland. A naval coöperation was promised, and a conjunct expedition against their common foes projected.

To mature the plan for the campaign, and to communicate personally with the French commanders, General Washington made a journey to Newport. He left headquarters on the second of March, and was absent nearly three weeks. The citizens of Newport received him with a public address, expressive of their attachment and gratitude for his services. A second meeting for consultation took place between the American and French commanders, at Wethersfield, in Connecticut, on the twenty-second of May. The two principal objects considered were, first, a southern expedition to act against the enemy in Virginia; secondly, a combined attack on New York. The French commander leaned to the former, but he yielded to the stronger reasons for the latter, which was decidedly preferred by General Washington. It was believed that Sir Henry Clinton's force in New York had been so much weakened by detachments, that the British general would be compelled either to sacrifice that place and its dependencies, or recall part of his troops from the south to defend them.

It was therefore agreed that Count de Rochambeau should march with the French army, as soon as possible, from Newport, and form a junction with the American army near the Hudson river.

The attention of Washington was but partially taken up with the affairs under his own eye. He held a constant correspondence with Generals Greene and Lafayette, who kept him informed of the operations at the south, and asked his advice and directions. Other sections of the country also required and received his care and attention.

On the sixth of July, the French army formed a junction with the American forces on the Hudson, a few miles north of the city of New York. The French army, which had marched in four divisions from Providence, by way of Hartford, occupied the left, in a single line extending to the river Bronx. The Americans encamped in two lines, with their right resting on the Hudson.

Preparations were made for an attack on New York, and Washington pushed forward with the main army to within four miles of King's bridge,

but finally fell back to Dobb's ferry, at which place the two armies continued six weeks. The American commander, observing how tardily his call on the respective states for troops was responded to, resolved not to make an attack until the arrival of the French fleet, under Count de Grasse, from the West Indies, then daily expected. At length, in August, he received a letter from De Grasse, informing him that he was about to sail with his whole fleet, and 3,200 land troops for the Chesapeake. Washington at once resolved to abandon the project of an attack upon New York, and, with the coöperation of Count de Rochambeau, proceeded without delay toward Virginia, with the whole of the French army, and as many Americans as could be spared from the posts on the Hudson. Washington and De Rochambeau preceded the army, and reached Lafayette's headquarters, at Williamsburg, Virginia, on the fourteenth of September, where, soon after, the whole army arrived. On his way, Washington made a flying visit to his seat at Mount Vernon, for the first time in six years, so completely had he devoted himself to the service of his country.

The French fleet under Count de Grasse, consisting of twenty-six ships-of-the-line and several frigates, entered the Chesapeake, where they were joined by the French squadron from Newport. Three thousand troops, under the marquis de St. Simon, disembarked from the French fleet, ascended the James river, and joined the allied armies at Williamsburg. The whole combined forces then took up their line of march for Yorktown, where the British army, under Lord Cornwallis, was intrenched; having erected strong fortifications at that place, and at Gloucester point, on the opposite shore.

On the thirtieth of September the allied armies completely invested Yorktown, the Americans being on the right, and the French on the left, in a semicircular line, each wing resting on York river. The post at Gloucester was invested by part of the French army and marines, with some Virginia militia. On the ninth and tenth of October, the Americans and French opened their batteries, and destroyed an English frigate and transport in the harbor. The siege lasted seventeen days, and was vigorously kept up, when, on the seventeenth of October, Lord Cornwallis proposed a cessation of hostilities, and the appointment of a commission to conclude upon terms for surrendering the posts of Yorktown and Gloucester. The proposition was accepted by General Washington, commissioners appointed, terms of surrender settled; and the articles were signed on the nineteenth of October, 1781.

On the afternoon of the day on which the capitulation was signed, the garrison marched out, and laid down their arms. The soldiers were surrendered to Washington, and the shipping in the harbor to the Count de Grasse. The number of prisoners was over seventeen thousand. The British lost, during the siege, between five and six hundred killed; the Americans about three hundred. The allied army consisted of about seven thousand American continental troops, five thousand French, and four thousand militia. The British force was only about half that of the allies; and doubtless Lord Cornwallis would have abandoned Yorktown before its investment, had he not confidently expected reinforcements from New York. On the very day of the surrender of Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton left New York with seven thousand men, on board of a fleet, to



reinforce the former; but on reaching the capes of the Chesapeake, he heard of the capture of Yorktown, and returned to New York.

The surrender of the British army at Yorktown was the last important military operation of the war of the Revolution. It was generally considered throughout the country as decisive of the contest in favor of the American cause. The year 1781 (says Ramsay) terminated, in all parts of the United States, in favor of the Americans. It began with weakness in Carolina, mutiny in New Jersey, and devastation in Virginia; nevertheless, at its close, the British were confined in their strongholds in or near New York, Charleston and Savannah, and their whole army in Virginia was captured.

Washington endeavored, but in vain, to induce the count de Grasse to remain and assist in the reduction of Charleston; he pleaded special engagements in the West Indies, whence he sailed immediately, leaving with Rochambeau the three thousand land troops he brought with him. The French army cantoned during the winter at Williamsburg, in Virginia, whither the prisoners taken at Yorktown were marched; and the main body of the American army returned to its late position in New Jersey and upon the Hudson. A detachment, under General St. Clair, was sent to the south, to strengthen the army of General Greene. The French army remained in Virginia until the summer of 1782, when they joined the Americans on the Hudson. On the cessation of hostilities, they embarked from Boston for St. Domingo, in December, 1782.

Vigilant measures were adopted by Washington for the campaign of 1782; but fortunately they were unnecessary, for active hostilities soon after ceased. In the southern states some skirmishes took place; but these combats were chiefly partisan, carried on between whigs and tories.

General Washington left Yorktown on the fifth of November, and hastened to Eltham, where his wife was attending the death bed of her only son, Mr. Custis. He remained there a few days to mingle his grief with the relatives of Mr. Custis, who died at the age of twenty-eight, leaving four young children, the two youngest of whom, a son and daughter, were adopted by the general, and they resided in his family till the end of his life. From Eltham he proceeded by the way of Mount Vernon, to Philadelphia, receiving and answering various public addresses while on his journey. He attended Congress the day after his arrival, and was greeted with a congratulatory address by the president of that body. By request, he remained some time in Philadelphia, to confer with Congress, and that he might enjoy some respite from the fatigues of war; and joined the army in the following month of April, establishing his headquarters at Newburgh, on the Hudson river.

Sir Guy Carleton, who was appointed to succeed Sir Henry Clinton in command of the British forces in America, arrived at New York early in May, 1782, bearing instructions to use all honorable means to bring about an accommodation with the United States. Both parties, therefore ceased offensive warfare, and preparations were made to conclude terms of peace. On the twentieth of January, 1783, the preliminary treaty was signed between France, Spain, and Great Britain, and on the third of September, definitive treaties of all the powers were signed at one time. Congress ratified the one with America on the fourteenth of January, 1784.

On the anniversary of the battle of Lexington, (April 19, 1783) a cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in the American army. On the third of November following, the army was disbanded by the orders of Congress, and the three cities occupied by British troops were evacuated—Savannah in July, New York in November, and Charleston in December, of the same year.

The conclusion of peace, and the disbanding of the army, were events that reflecting men looked forward to with feelings of mingled joy and fear. Although the struggle had been brought to a triumphant issue by the United States, the country was impoverished. Much of the territory had been laid waste, commerce was nearly annihilated, a heavy burden of debt incurred by the war was weighing upon the people, and the circulating medium of paper money had become so utterly worthless, that, by a decree of Congress, its functions were terminated. Added to this, an army of about ten thousand men were large creditors to Congress, their pay being greatly in arrears. It was manifest that Congress was unable to meet the claims of the soldiers, and could only recommend their case to their respective states.

In the month of December, 1782, the officers in the army resolved to memorialize Congress upon the subject of their grievances, proposing that the half-pay for life should be commuted for a specific sum, and requesting government to give security for the fulfillment of its engagements. Congress had a stormy debate upon the subject; but as nine states could not be obtained to vote the commutation proposition, the whole matter was dropped. This neglect of Congress to provide for their wants, produced a violent ferment among the officers, and through them the whole army became excited, and many minds among them determined upon coercive measures. In the midst of this ferment, an anonymous notice for a meeting of the general and field-officers, and a commissioned officer from each company, was circulated in the camp, accompanied with a letter, or address, complaining of their great hardships, and asserting that their country, instead of relieving them, "trampled upon their rights, disdained their cries, and insulted their distresses."

Fortunately, Washington was in the camp, and, with his usual promptness and wisdom, called a general meeting of all the officers, in place of the irregular one. He condemned the tone of the letter, as implying a proposal either to desert their country or turn their arms against her, and then gave them the strongest pledges that he would use his utmost power to induce Congress to grant their demands. His address was a feeling one, and appealed directly to their patriotism and the nobler sentiments of the heart. When he had concluded, he immediately retired from the meeting. The deliberations of the officers were exceedingly brief, and resulted in the adoption of resolutions thanking the commander-in-chief for the course he had pursued, and expressing their unabated attachment to him, and confidence in the justice and good faith of Congress. They then separated, and with hearts glowing with warmer patriotism, resolved still longer to endure privations for their beloved country. Congress soon after made arrangements for granting the officers full pay for five years, instead of half-pay for life, and four months full pay for the army, in part payment of arrearages. But as there were no funds to make this payment



immediately, it required all the address of Washington to induce the soldiers to quietly return to their homes.

On the 24th of March, 1783, a letter was received from Lafayette, announcing the signing of the preliminary treaty; and Sir Guy Carleton gave official notice of the same soon after. In June, Washington wrote a circular letter to the governors of the States, having for its theme the general welfare of the country, in which he exhibited great ability, and the most truthful features of genuine patriotism. During the summer, many of the troops went home on furlough, and the commander-in-chief was employed, with Congress, in arranging a peace establishment, and making preparations for the evacuation of New York by the British troops. On the eighteenth of October, Congress issued a proclamation, discharging the troops from further service; and thus, in effect, the continental army was disbanded. This proclamation was soon followed by General Washington's Farewell Address to the Army, November 2, 1783; an address replete with sound wisdom and evidences of a virtuous attachment to the men and the cause with whom, and for which, he had labored for eight years.

A small body of troops, who had enlisted for a definite period, were retained in the service, and assembled at West Point, under General Knox. Arrangements having been made with Carleton for the evacuation and surrender of New York on the twenty-fifth of November, these troops proceeded to the city, and, as soon as the British were embarked, they entered in triumphal procession, with Governor Clinton and other civil officers of the State. The ceremonies of the day were ended by a public entertainment given by Governor Clinton, and, throughout the whole transaction, perfect order prevailed.

On the fourth of December Washington bade a final adieu to his companions in arms. "At noon," says Marshall, "the principal officers of the army assembled at Francis's tavern, in New York, soon after which their beloved commander entered the room. His emotions were too strong to be concealed. Filling a glass, he turned to them and said: 'With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you. I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and happy, as your former ones have been glorious and honorable.' Having drank, he added: 'I cannot come to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged if each of you will come and take me by the hand.' General Knox, being nearest, turned to him. Washington, incapable of utterance, grasped his hand and embraced him. In the same affectionate manner he took leave of each succeeding officer. The tear of manly sensibility was in every eye, and not a word was articulated to interrupt the dignified silence, and the tenderness of the scene. Leaving the room, he passed through the corps of light infantry, and walked to Whitehall, where a barge waited to convey him to Paulus's Hook. The whole company followed in mute and solemn procession, with dejected countenances, testifying feelings of delicious melancholy, which no language can describe. Having entered the barge, he turned to the company, and, waving his hat, bade them a silent adieu. They paid him the same affectionate compliment; and, after the barge had left them, returned in the same solemn manner to the place where they had assembled."

Washington then repaired to Annapolis, where Congress was in session, and on the twenty-third of December, resigned into their hands the commission he had received from that body more than eight years before, appointing him commander-in-chief of the continental armies. In all the towns and villages through which he passed, public and private demonstrations of joy and gratitude met him on every side; and Congress resolved that the resignation of his commission should be in a public audience. A large concourse of distinguished persons was present; and, at the close of a brief address, Washington stepped forward and handed his commission to the president, (General Mifflin) who made an affectionate and appropriate reply. He then "hastened with ineffable delight" (to use his own words) to his seat at Mount Vernon, resolved there to pass the remainder of his days amid the pure and quiet pleasures of his domestic circle, enhanced a thousand-fold by the consideration that his country was free and independent, and had taken a place among the other nations of the earth.

The conclusion of the revolutionary war permitted Washington to return to those domestic scenes in which he delighted, and from which no views of ambition seem to have had the power to draw his affections. One of the greatest proofs of his patriotism was his refusal to receive any pecuniary compensation for his services as commander-in-chief during the eight years in which he had served his country in that capacity. When he accepted the appointment, he announced to Congress his determination to decline payment for his services. He simply asked the reimbursement of his expenses, an exact account of which he kept and presented to the government, drawn up by his own hand at the close of the war.

In the month of September, 1784, Washington made a tour to the western country, for the purpose of inspecting the lands he possessed beyond the Allegheny mountains, and also of ascertaining the practicability of opening a canal between the head-waters of the rivers running eastward into the Atlantic, and those that flow westward to the Ohio. The extent of this journey was six hundred and eighty miles, which he traveled on horseback. He crossed the mountains, and examined the waters of the Monongahela river, with the special view of deciding the question in his own mind, whether the Potomac and James rivers could be connected by internal navigation with the western waters. He conversed on the subject with such intelligent persons as he met, and kept a journal in which he recorded the results of his observations and inquiries. His thoughts had been turned to this enterprise before the Revolution; and soon after returning from this western tour, in October, 1784, he communicated to the governor of Virginia the fruits of his investigations in a letter, one of the ablest, most sagacious, and most important productions of his pen. The governor laid this letter before the legislature. It was the first suggestion of the great system of internal improvements which has since been pursued in the United States.

Washington was not long allowed to remain in retirement. To remedy the distress into which the country had been thrown by the war, and to organize a permanent plan of national government, a national convention of delegates from the several states was called, and met at Philadelphia in 1787. Having been chosen one of the delegates from Virginia, Washington was appointed to preside over the deliberations of the convention,



and used his influence to cause the adoption of the constitution of the United States.

By the unanimous voice of his fellow-citizens and of the electoral colleges, he was called, in 1789, to act as president of the United States, and cheerfully lent his aid in organizing the new government. Amid all the difficulties which occurred at that period from differences of opinion among the people, many of whom were opposed to the measures proposed and adopted, the national government would probably have perished in its infancy, if it had not been for the wisdom and firmness of Washington. During his first term the French revolution commenced, which convulsed the whole political world, and which tried most severely his moderation and prudence. His conduct was a model of firm and dignified moderation. Insults were offered to his authority by the minister of the French republic (Mr. Genet) and his adherents, in official papers, in anonymous libels, and by tumultuous meetings. The law of nations was trampled under foot. No vexation could disturb the tranquillity of his mind, or make him deviate from the policy which his situation prescribed. During the whole course of that arduous struggle, his personal character gave that strength to a new magistracy which in other countries arises from ancient habits of obedience and respect. The authority of his virtue was more efficacious for the preservation of America, than the legal powers of his office. During this turbulent period he was unanimously reëlected to the presidency, in 1793, for another term, although he had expressed a wish to retire. The nation was then nearly equally divided into two great political parties, who united on the name of Washington. Throughout the whole course of his second presidency the danger of the United States was great and imminent. The spirit of change, indeed, shook all nations. But in other countries it had to encounter ancient and strong established power; in America the government was new and weak; the people had scarcely time to recover from the effects of a recent civil war. Washington employed the horror excited by the atrocities of the French revolution for the best purposes; to preserve the internal quiet of his country; to assert the dignity and to maintain the rights of the commonwealth which he governed, against foreign enemies. He avoided war, without incurring the imputation of pusillanimity. He cherished the detestation of the best portion of his countrymen for anarchy, without weakening the spirit of liberty; and he maintained the authority of the government without infringing on the rights of the states, or abridging the privileges of the people. He raised no hopes that he did not gratify; he made no promises that he did not fulfill; he exacted proper respect due to the high office he held, and rendered to others every courtesy belonging to his high station.

Having determined to retire from the presidency at the expiration of his second term, in March, 1797, he issued in September, 1796, a farewell address to the people of the United States, which will be found in this volume, and which will remain as a permanent legacy to his countrymen through future generations, for its sentiments of patriotism, and sound maxims of political sagacity. He remained at the seat of government until the inauguration of his successor, Mr. Adams, which occasion he honored with his presence, and immediately retired to Mount Vernon to pass the remainder of his days in quiet retirement; but when, in 1798, the United States armed by sea and land, in consequence of their difficulties with

France, he consented to act as lieutenant-general of the army; but was never afterward called upon to take the field, although he bore the commission until his death. On Thursday, the twelfth of December, 1799, he was seized with an inflammation in his throat, which became considerably worse the next day, and which terminated his life on Saturday, the fourteenth of the same month, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

"No man," says Colonel Knapp, in his biographical sketch, "was ever mourned so widely and sincerely as Washington. Throughout the United States, eulogies were pronounced upon his character, sermons were preached, or some mark of respect paid to his memory. It was not speaking extravagantly to say that a nation was in tears at his death. There have been popular men, who were great in their day and generation, but whose fame soon passed away. It is not so with the fame of Washington, it grows brighter by years. The writings of Washington (a portion only of which comprise eleven octavo volumes) show that he had a clear, lucid mind, and will be read with pleasure for ages to come."

"General Washington," says Judge Marshall, "was rather above the common size; his frame was robust, and his constitution vigorous—capable of enduring great fatigue, and requiring a considerable degree of exercise for the preservation of his health. His exterior created in the beholder the idea of strength united with manly gracefulness.

"His manners were rather reserved than free, though they partook nothing of that dryness and sternness which accompany reserve when carried to an extreme; and on all proper occasions he could relax sufficiently to show how highly he was gratified by the charms of conversation, and the pleasures of society. His person and whole deportment exhibited an unaffected and indescribable dignity, unmingled with haughtiness, of which all who approached him were sensible; and the attachment of those who possessed his friendship, and enjoyed his intimacy, was ardent, but always respectful.

"His temper was humane, benevolent, and conciliatory; but there was a quickness in his sensibility to anything apparently offensive, which experience had taught him to watch and to correct.

"In the management of his private affairs he exhibited an exact yet liberal economy. His funds were not prodigally wasted on capricious and ill-examined schemes, nor refused to beneficial though costly improvements. They remained, therefore, competent to that extensive establishment which his reputation, added to an hospitable temper, had in some measure imposed upon him, and to those donations which real distress had a right to claim from opulence.

"In his civil administration, as in his military career, were exhibited ample and repeated proofs of that practical good sense, of that sound judgment, which is perhaps the most rare, and is certainly the most valuable quality of the human mind.

"In speculation he was a real republican, devoted to the constitution of his country, and to that system of equal political rights on which it is founded. But between a balanced republic and a democracy, the difference is like that between order and chaos. Real liberty, he thought, was to be preserved only by preserving the authority of the laws, and maintaining the energy of government."



## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF ANDREW JACKSON.

THE ancestors of Andrew Jackson, the seventh president of the United States, were among the emigrants from Scotland to the province of Ulster, in Ireland, at a period when it was the policy of the English government to promote the colonization of settlers from England and Scotland to the confiscated lands of the Irish. The family of Jackson was therefore of Scottish origin; and they were attached to the Presbyterian church. Hugh Jackson, the grandfather of the subject of the present sketch, was a linen draper, near Carrickfergus, in Ireland. His four sons were respectable farmers; of whom Andrew, the youngest, married Elizabeth Hutchinson, and had in Ireland two sons, Hugh and Robert. The unfortunate condition of his native country induced him to dispose of his farm, and in 1765, with his wife and children, to emigrate to America, and settle in South Carolina. Samuel Jackson, a son of another of the brothers, at a subsequent period, emigrated to Pennsylvania, and became a citizen of Philadelphia.

Three of the neighbors of Andrew Jackson, named Crawford, emigrated to America with him, and the four emigrants purchased lands and settled in the Waxhaw settlement, South Carolina, near the line of North Carolina.

On this plantation of his father, at Waxhaw settlement, Andrew Jackson, the subject of this memoir, was born, on the 15th of March, 1767. His father died about the time of his birth, leaving his farm to his widow, and his name to his infant son.

Left with three young sons, and moderate means, Mrs. Jackson gave her two oldest a common school education, while the youngest she desired to see prepared for the ministry, and, at a proper age, placed him under the tuition of Mr. Humphries, principal of the Waxhaw academy, where he made considerable progress in his studies, including Latin and Greek, until interrupted by the events of the war of the revolution. Although but about eight years of age, when the first conflicts between the British and Americans took place, Andrew Jackson soon became accustomed to the stirring scenes around him, of the friends and neighbors of his mother training themselves for battle, and preparing to defend their homes from the attacks and ravages of the invading foe.

The British commanding officers in America having resolved to carry the war into the southern states, Savannah, in Georgia, was taken in 1778, and South Carolina invaded in the spring of 1779. The militia were summoned to the field to repel them, and Hugh Jackson, the oldest brother of Andrew, lost his life in the fatigues of the service. A battle took place at the Waxhaw settlement, between the British and Americans, in May, 1780, when 113 Americans were killed, and 150 wounded. Considerable ammunition and stores fell into the hands of the enemy. In the Waxhaw meetinghouse, where the wounded were carried, Andrew Jackson, then thirteen

years of age, first saw the horrors of war. The mangled bodies of his countrymen confirmed the impression made upon his youthful mind by the tales of English oppression and cruelty which he had so often heard from his mother and kindred, while relating scenes of tyranny in Ireland, from which his father had fled to find a retreat in America.

In the summer of 1780, Andrew Jackson, being then but little more than thirteen years of age, in company with his brother Robert, joined a corps of volunteers, under the command of Colonel Davie, to attempt the defence of that part of the country against a body of British troops and Tories who had penetrated into the interior of the Carolinas. Davie's corps was attached to General Sumpter's brigade, and an action took place on the 6th of August, 1780, between the American troops and the British and Tories, at a place called Hanging Rock. The corps of Davie, in which the young Jacksons fought, particularly distinguished itself, and suffered heavy loss.

Not being regularly attached to any military corps, on account of their youth, Robert and Andrew Jackson did not participate in many of the numerous affairs in which the Americans were engaged with the British during their long campaign in the Carolinas. They retired with their mother into North Carolina for some time, leaving their home on the approach of the British army in that quarter. In 1781, both of the boys were taken prisoners by a party of dragoons. While a prisoner, Andrew Jackson was ordered by a British officer to clean his muddy boots, which the young soldier refusing, he received a wound with a sword from the officer, and the wound left a scar which Jackson carried with him to his grave. His brother Robert, for a similar offence, received a wound on his head, from the effects of which he never recovered. The brothers were retained some time in captivity, at Camden, where their sufferings were great from their wounds and the smallpox, then prevalent among the prisoners. Being finally released, by exchange, the Jacksons, accompanied by their mother, returned home to the Waxhaw settlement, where Robert died in two days afterward. By kind nursing and the care of a physician, Andrew finally recovered from a dangerous sickness. His mother died soon after this, from the effects of a fever taken on board the prison-ship at Charleston, whither she went on an adventure of kindness and mercy, for the relief of some of her relatives and friends confined on board of that vessel. Thus every member of the Jackson family which came from Ireland to America to escape British oppression, perished through the effects of the same oppression in America. The only remnant of the family was an American-born son, who, through many perils, lived to be the avenger of his race.

At the close of the war of the revolution, Andrew Jackson was left alone in the world, his own master, with some little property, but without the benefit of parental counsel or restraint. At first associating with idle young men, he imbibed loose and extravagant habits, which he suddenly determined to reform. Changing his course of life, he commenced the study of law, at Salisbury, North Carolina, with Spruce M'Cay, Esq., then an eminent counsellor, and subsequently a judge of distinction. This was in the winter of 1784, when he was in his eighteenth year. He finished his studies under Colonel Stokes, and in a little more than two years he was licensed to practice law. Soon after this, without solicitation on his



part, he received from the Governor of North Carolina the appointment of solicitor for the western district of that state, embracing the present state of Tennessee.

At the age of twenty-one, in 1788, Andrew Jackson, accompanied by Judge McNairy, crossed the mountains to take up his abode in Tennessee, then the western district of North Carolina. For several months he resided at Jonesborough, then the principal seat of justice in that district. In 1789, he first visited the infant settlement on the Cumberland river, near the present site of Nashville. The settlers had at this time many difficulties with the Indians, who were then numerous, and hostile to the whites. During this perilous period, Jackson performed twenty-one journeys across the wilderness of two hundred miles, then intervening between Jonesborough and the Cumberland settlements. He was frequently under arms, with other settlers, to protect parties of emigrants from the attacks of the Indians. He was also engaged in several expeditions against the Indians, in one of which, in 1794, the native town of Nickajack, near the Tennessee river, was destroyed. By his gallantry in these affairs, Jackson became well known to the Indians, who gave him the names of "*Sharp Knife*" and "*Pointed Arrow*." He gained equally their respect and that of his companions, the hardy settlers of Tennessee.

Having determined to make the neighborhood of Nashville his permanent home, Jackson, with his friend Judge Overton, became boarders in the family of Mrs. Donelson, the widow of Colonel John Donelson, an emigrant from Virginia. Mrs. Rachel Robards, her daughter, who afterward became the wife of Jackson, was then living with her mother. This lady was celebrated for her beauty, affability, and other attractions. Her husband, Captain Robards, was a man of dissolute habits and jealous disposition. A separation took place, and Robards applied to the legislature of Virginia for a divorce; soon after intelligence was received that his petition had been granted. Mrs. Robards was then at Natchez, on the Mississippi, and Jackson, considering that she was free to form a new connection, in the summer of 1791 went down to Natchez, paid her his addresses, and was accepted. In the fall they were married, and returned to the Cumberland, where they were cordially received by their mutual friends.

In December, 1793, Jackson learned, for the first time, that the act of the Virginia legislature did not grant a divorce, but only authorized a suit for divorce in a Kentucky court, which had just been brought to a successful issue. Surprised and mortified at this information, on his return to Nashville, in January, 1794, he took out a license, and was again regularly married. The conduct of Jackson in this affair was considered, by those familiar with the circumstances, correct and honorable, and perfectly consistent with true morality. His friend and confidential associate remarks: "In his singularly delicate sense of honor, and in what I thought his chivalrous conception of the female sex, it occurred to me that he was distinguished from every other person with whom I was acquainted."

Jackson, after his marriage, applied himself with renewed diligence to his profession in the practice of the law. Circumstances connected with his professional business required the exercise of his firmness of character and courage, in no ordinary degree. There had been a combination of debtors against him, as he was employed by creditors for the collection of claims, which he succeeded in breaking down, but not without making bit-

ter enemies. Bullies were stimulated to attack and insult him, and thus brought him into several personal contests, which generally ended in a severe punishment of the aggressors, by the bold and fearless Jackson.

In 1795, the people of Tennessee elected delegates to a convention for the formation of a state constitution, preparatory to admission into the Union. Of that convention Jackson was chosen a member by his neighbors, and took an active part in the formation of the constitution. The convention sat at Knoxville from the 11th of January to the 6th of February, 1796, and Tennessee was admitted into the Union as a state, by act of Congress, on the 1st of June, the same year. Jackson was chosen the first representative from the new state in Congress, and took his seat in the house on the 5th of December, 1796. His term expired on the 3d of March following, and he was prevented from continuing longer in that body, being elected by the legislature of Tennessee to the senate of the United States, where he took his seat on the 22d of November, 1797, being then only a few months over thirty years of age. He appears not to have been ambitious or anxious for political distinction at that time, for, after serving one session, he resigned his seat in the senate. During his short career in Congress, it is believed that he made no speeches; but in his votes he acted with the democratic party, opposing the administration of Washington at its close, and subsequently that of John Adams. While a member of the house, he was one of a minority of twelve democrats, among whom were Edward Livingston, Nathaniel Macon, and William B. Giles, who voted against an answer to Washington's last speech to Congress; because that answer expressly approved of the measures of Washington's administration, some of which were condemned by the democratic party. The state gave her first vote for president to Mr. Jefferson, in 1796, which vote she repeated in 1800. In the political revolution which elevated Mr. Jefferson to the presidency, Jackson participated, and acted with the friends of Mr. Jefferson; but little effort was required, however, to secure the vote for the democratic candidates, in a state so uniformly devoted to that party as Tennessee.

At this period, the popularity of Jackson in Tennessee was equal, if it did not exceed that of any other citizen of the state. Soon after his resignation as senator, the legislature again honored him by conferring upon him the appointment of judge of the supreme court of the state. This office he accepted, and for a time performed the duties of the station; but, owing to ill health, he determined to resign and retire to private life. This intention he was induced to defer for the present, in consequence of remonstrances from members of the legislature and others, who entreated him to remain upon the bench.

The circumstances in which Jackson was placed, and his course in several public affairs, occasioned a misunderstanding between him and other leading men in Tennessee. Among those who became his enemies, were Judge McNairy and Governor Sevier. A personal quarrel with the latter occasioned a challenge from Judge Jackson, which was accepted by the governor, and the parties, without any formal arrangement, met on horseback, each armed with a brace of pistols, the governor having also a sword, while Jackson had a cane, which he carried as a spear. Putting spurs to his horse, he charged upon his antagonist in a bold and unexpected manner, and the governor dismounted to avoid the shock. The interference



of the governor's attendants prevented any serious mischief, and by the intercession of mutual friends, further hostile intentions were abandoned. The affair, however, occasioned sundry angry publications by the friends of the respective parties, which show the peculiar state of society then existing in the frontier settlements, where men holding the highest public stations were engaged in personal rencontres.

Previous to his affair with Governor Sevier, Jackson was appointed major-general of the militia of the state, viz., in 1802. His competitor was John Sevier, who was then also a candidate for governor. The votes of the officers by whom the appointment of general was made being equally divided, the decision devolved on Governor Roane, who gave it in favor of Jackson.

On the purchase of Louisiana from France, in 1803, by the United States, there were apprehensions of a difficulty with Spain, when the Americans should take possession of the territory. The Tennessee militia were called upon for aid in case of need, and by request of the secretary of war, General Jackson caused boats to be prepared to transport the troops to New Orleans; but neither the boats, nor his own proffered services, were required, as the Spaniards made no resistance to the peaceful transfer and occupation of Louisiana.

In 1804, General Jackson, having served six years on the bench, resigned his office of judge of the supreme court. His biographer and friend, Mr. Kendall, remarks that he "was not made for what is usually called a first-rate lawyer. His mode of reasoning would not permit him to seek for justice through a labyrinth of technicalities and special pleading. Yet few, if any, exceeded him in seizing on the strong points of a case, and with vigor and clearness applying to them the great points of law. As a lawyer, in criminal prosecutions, the case of his client always became his own, and he was considered one of the most eloquent and effective among his contemporaries. As a judge, his opinions were always clear, short, and to the point, aiming at justice, without the affectation of eloquence, or of superior learning. His retirement from the bench gratified only those who feared his justice, while it was deeply regretted by a large majority of the community."

After his resignation as judge, General Jackson found that retirement which he had long desired. Having acquired a moderate fortune, he took up his residence on his plantation on the banks of the Cumberland, near Nashville, and not far from that which he subsequently occupied under the name of the Hermitage. His time was now devoted to the pursuits of agriculture, in one of the finest districts of country in the United States, and his house was always the abode of hospitality, where his numerous friends and acquaintances were received by him with a cordial welcome.

In addition to other pursuits on his plantation, much of General Jackson's attention was given to the raising of fine horses, from the most improved breeds of the southern states. He consequently became a frequenter of race-courses at the west, to bring out his favorite horses, and occasionally lost and won in the sports of the turf. These affairs led to one of the most unfortunate events of his life. In consequence of a quarrel, which ended in blows, between Jackson and Charles Dickinson, on the subject of a bet made at a horse-race, followed by an abusive publication on the part of Dickinson, charging Jackson with cowardice, the general

sent Dickinson a challenge. The duel took place at Harrison's mills, on Red river, in Kentucky, on the 30th of May, 1806. The word being given Dickinson fired first, his ball taking effect in Jackson's breast, and shattering two of his ribs; the next instant Jackson fired, although thus severely wounded, and Dickinson fell; he was taken to a neighboring house, and survived but a few hours. This melancholy affair caused much excitement in Tennessee at the time, and various publications on the subject appeared from the friends of the respective parties, and General Jackson himself; but the certificates of the seconds declared that the duel had been fairly conducted, according to the previous understanding of the parties. The firmness of nerve displayed by General Jackson in this duel was remarkable, considering that he was wounded before discharging his pistol. Some weeks transpired before he recovered from the effects of his wounds.

During the short period while General Jackson was a member of Congress, he had formed the acquaintance of Colonel Aaron Burr, who, in 1805, visited the western country, and spent several days at the residence of Jackson. Burr, in his journal, describes the general as "once a lawyer, after a judge, now a planter; a man of intelligence; and one of those prompt, frank, ardent souls whom I love to meet." The general treated him with great kindness and hospitality, and understanding that his object was the settlement of a tract of land in Louisiana, and the making arrangements for the invasion of Mexico, in case of a war with Spain, he rendered him such assistance as he could afford, and procured for him a boat to descend the Cumberland river.

In 1806, Colonel Burr again returned to the western country, and commenced preparations for an expedition. General Jackson offered to accompany him to Mexico with a body of troops, in case of a war with Spain; but declined holding communication with him if he had any hostile intentions against the United States. Burr assured him, in the most positive terms, that he had no such hostile design; but Jackson having his suspicions, the previous intimacy between him and Burr ceased. He afterward received orders from the war department to call out the military, if necessary, to suppress Burr's projects, and arrest Burr himself. Twelve military companies of the militia under his command, were ordered out by General Jackson, but as Burr had descended the Cumberland and Mississippi rivers, with only a few unarmed men, the general dismissed the troops, and reported his proceedings to the government.

After Burr was arrested and taken to Richmond, Virginia, for trial, on a charge of treason against the United States, General Jackson was summoned as a witness, but was not examined. He knew nothing tending to criminate the accused, and his evidence, if given, would have been in favor of Burr. It may be here remarked, that Colonel Burr's respect for General Jackson continued through life; and he always spoke of him as a man of integrity and honor. It is believed that he was the first to name him (though this was then unknown to the general himself), as early as 1815, in his private correspondence, as a suitable candidate for the presidency.

General Jackson continued in private life, attending to his agricultural employments, until the war of 1812 with Great Britain. Having become interested in a mercantile establishment in Nashville, the management of which he intrusted to his partner in that business, he became seriously



of the governor's attendants prevented any serious mischief, and by the intercession of mutual friends, further hostile intentions were abandoned. The affair, however, occasioned sundry angry publications by the friends of the respective parties, which show the peculiar state of society then existing in the frontier settlements, where men holding the highest public stations were engaged in personal rencontres.

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involved in the debts of the concern, which he was compelled to close; and, for the payment of his debts, sold his residence and plantation. He then retired into a log cabin, near the place since called "the Hermitage," and commenced the world anew. By a prudent and economical management of his affairs, he soon retrieved his pecuniary condition, and again became possessed of the means of comfort and enjoyment.

But a period approached when the pleasures and endearments of home were to be abandoned, for the duties of more active life. War with Great Britain was declared by the Congress of the United States on the 12th of June, 1812. General Jackson, ever devoted to the interests of his country, from the moment of the declaration knew no wish so strong as that of entering into her service against a power which, independent of public considerations, he had many private reasons for disliking. In her he could trace sufferings and injuries received, and the efficient cause why, in early life, he had been left forlorn and wretched, without a single relation in the world. His proud and inflexible mind, however, could not bend to solicit an appointment in the army which was about to be raised. He accordingly remained wholly unknown, until, at the head of the militia employed against the Creek Indians, his constant vigilance, and the splendor of his victories, apprized the general government of those great military talents which he so eminently possessed and conspicuously displayed, when opportunities for exerting them were afforded.

The acts of Congress on the 6th of February and July, 1812, afforded the means of bringing into view a display of those powers which, being unknown, unfortunately might have slumbered in inaction. Under the authority of these acts, authorizing the president to accept the services of fifty thousand volunteers, he addressed the citizens of his division, and twenty-five hundred flocked to his standard. A tender of them having been made, and the offer accepted, in November he received orders to place himself at their head, and to descend the Mississippi, for the defence of the lower country, which was then supposed to be in danger. Accordingly, on the 10th of December, 1812, those troops rendezvoused at Nashville, prepared to advance to their place of destination; and although the weather was then excessively severe, and the ground covered with snow, no troops could have displayed greater firmness. The general was every where with them, inspiring them with the ardor that animated his own bosom.

Having procured supplies, and made the necessary arrangements for an active campaign, they proceeded, the 7th of January, 1813, on their journey, and descending the Ohio and Mississippi, through cold and ice, arrived and halted at Natchez. Here Jackson had been instructed to remain, until he should receive further orders. Having chosen a healthy site for the encampment of his troops, he devoted his time to training and preparing them for active service. The clouds of war, however, in that quarter, having blown over, an order was received from the secretary of war, dated the fifth of January, directing him, on receipt thereof, to dismiss those under his command from service, and to take measures for delivering over every article of public property in his possession to General Wilkinson. When this order reached his camp, there were one hundred and fifty on the sick report, and almost the whole of them destitute of the means of defraying the expenses of their return. The consequence of a strict com-

pliance with the secretary's order, would have been, that many of the sick must have perished, while most of the others, from their destitute condition, would, of necessity, have been compelled to enlist in the regular army, under General Wilkinson.

General Jackson could not think of sacrificing or injuring an army that had shown such devotedness to their country; and he determined to disregard the order, and march them again to their homes in Tennessee, where they had been embodied. This determination met with the disapprobation of his field officers, and of General Wilkinson; but persisting in his design, General Jackson marched the whole of his division to the section of country whence they had been drawn, and dismissed them from service, as he had been instructed. The sick were transported in wagons, at the same time. It was at a time of the year when the roads were bad, and the swamps lying in their passage deep and full; yet the general placed before his troops an example of patience under hardships that lulled to silence all complaints, and won to him, still stronger than before, the esteem and respect of every one. On arriving at Nashville, he communicated to the president of the United States the course he had pursued, and the reasons that had induced it. His conduct was in the end approved, and the expenses incurred directed to be paid by the government.

The volunteers who had descended the river having been discharged early in May, 1813, there was little expectation that they would again be called for. Tennessee was too remotely situated in the interior, to expect their services would be required for the defence of the state; and thus far, the British had discovered no serious intention of waging operations against any part of Louisiana. Their repose, however, was not of long duration. The Creek Indians, inhabiting the country lying between the Chattahoochee and Tombigbee rivers, and extending from the Tennessee river to the Florida line, had lately manifested strong symptoms of hostility toward the United States. This disposition was greatly strengthened through means used by the northern Indians, who were then making preparations for a war against the United States, and who wished to engage the southern tribes in the same enterprise.

An artful impostor had, about this time, sprung up among the Shawnees, a northern tribe, who, by passing for a prophet, had acquired a most astonishing influence among his own and the neighboring Indian tribes. He succeeded in a short time in kindling a phrensy and rage against the Anglo-Americans, which soon after burst forth in acts of destructive violence. His brother, Tecumseh, who became so famous during the war, and who was killed subsequently at the battle of the Thames, in Canada, was despatched to the southern tribes, to excite in them the same temper. To the Creeks, then the most numerous and powerful of the southern Indians, he directed his principal attention, and in the spring of 1812 he had repeated conferences with the chiefs of that nation. Deriving his powers from his brother, the prophet, whose extraordinary commission and endowments were, previous to this, well understood by the tribes in the south, his authority was regarded with the highest veneration. To afford additional weight to his councils, Tecumseh gave assurances of aid and support from Great Britain; and having made other arrangements to carry out his plans, he returned to his own tribe.

From this time, a regular communication was kept up between the Creeks



and the northern tribes, while depredations were committed on the frontier settlers by parties of the allied Indians. In the summer of 1812, several families were murdered near the mouth of the Ohio, and soon afterward similar outrages were committed in Tennessee and Georgia. These acts were not sanctioned by the chiefs of the Creek nation, for, on application to them by the general government, the offenders were punished with death. No sooner was this done, than the spirit of the greater part of the nation suddenly kindled into civil war.

They first attacked their own countrymen who were friendly to the United States, and compelled them to retire toward the white settlements for protection. After this, they collected a supply of ammunition from the Spaniards at Pensacola, and on the 30th of August, 1813, commenced an assault at Fort Mimms, in the Mississippi territory, which they succeeded in carrying, and put to death nearly three hundred persons, including women and children, with the most savage barbarity. Only seventeen of the whole number in the fort escaped, to bring intelligence of the catastrophe.

This monstrous and unprovoked outrage was no sooner known in Tennessee, than the whole state was thrown into a ferment, and immediate measures were taken to inflict exemplary punishment on the hostile Indians. The legislature, by the advice of numerous citizens, among whom were the governor and General Jackson, authorized the executive to call into the field 3,500 men, to be marched against the Indians. The troops were placed under the command of General Jackson, notwithstanding he was at the time seriously indisposed, from the effects of a fractured arm, owing to a wound received by him from a pistol-shot, in a fight with Colonel Thomas H. Benton, at a public house in Nashville.

The army under General Jackson marched into the Indian country in October, 1813. Crossing the Tennessee river, and learning that a large body of the enemy had posted themselves at Tallushatchee, on the river Coosa, General Coffee was detached with nine hundred men to attack and disperse them. This was effected, with a small loss on the part of the Tennessee troops, while the Indians lost 186 killed, among whom were, unfortunately, and through accident, a few women and children. Eighty-four Indian women and children were taken prisoners, and treated with the utmost humanity.

Another battle with over a thousand of the Creeks, took place shortly after at Talladega, thirty miles below Tallushatchee—the Tennessee troops being commanded by General Jackson in person—when 300 Indians were left dead on the field, and about as many more slain in their flight.

This campaign was protracted much longer than would otherwise have been the case, in consequence of the want of supplies of provisions for the army, which caused large numbers of the troops to return to their homes. Having at length obtained supplies, and being joined by more troops, Gen. Jackson advanced still further into the enemy's country. Several battles took place with the Indians, the most sanguinary of which was that of Tohopeka, or the Horseshoe, at the bend of the Tallapoosa river. On that occasion 557 warriors, of 1,000 in the engagement, were found dead on the field, besides many others who were killed and thrown into the river, while the battle raged, or shot in attempting to escape by swimming. Over 300 prisoners were taken, all, but three or four, women and children.

In this and other battles, the whites were assisted by a considerable body of friendly Creek and Cherokee Indians, who engaged in pursuing and destroying their fugitive countrymen with the most unrelenting rigor, "a circumstance," says Eaton, in his life of Jackson, "which the patriot must ever view with abhorrence; and although, from necessity or policy, he may be compelled to avail himself of the advantages afforded by such a circumstance, he can never be induced either to approve or justify it."

The battle of the Horseshoe gave a deathblow to the hopes of the Indians; nor did they venture afterward to make a stand. The principal chiefs came in, made their submission to General Jackson, and sued for peace; the campaign was ended, and the troops were marched back to Tennessee and discharged.

In May, 1814, General Jackson received the appointment of major-general in the army of the United States, on the resignation of General Harrison. Previous to this appointment, a commission as brigadier and brevet major-general had been forwarded to General Jackson, but his commission for the higher office being received the day after the notification of the other, he had not sent his answer to the war department, and the appointment of major-general was accepted.

The contest with the Indians being ended, the first and principal object of the government was, to enter into some definite arrangement which should deprive of success any effort that might thereafter be made, by other powers, to enlist those savages in their wars. None was so well calculated to answer this end, as that of restricting their limits, so as to cut off their communication with British and Spanish agents, in East and West Florida.

No treaty of friendship or boundary had yet been entered into by the government with the Indians; they remained a conquered people, and within the limits, and subject to the regulations and restrictions which had been prescribed in March, 1814, by General Jackson, when he retired from the country. He was now, by the government, called upon to act in a new and different character, and to negotiate the terms upon which an amicable understanding should be restored between the United States and these conquered Indians. Colonel Hawkins, who for a considerable time past had been the agent of the Creek nation, was also associated in the mission.

On the 10th of June, 1814, General Jackson, with a small retinue, reached the Alabama, and on the 10th of August, succeeded in procuring the execution of a treaty, in which the Indians pledged themselves no more to listen to foreign emissaries—to hold no communication with British or Spanish garrisons; guarantied to the United States the right of erecting military posts in their country, and a free navigation of all their waters. They stipulated also, that they would suffer no agent or trader to pass among them, or hold any kind of commerce or intercourse with the nation, unless specially deriving his authority from the president of the United States.

The treaty also settled the boundary and defined the extent of territory secured to the Creeks, and that which they were required to surrender. Sufficient territory was acquired on the south by the United States, to give security to the Mobile settlements, and to the western borders of Georgia, effectually cutting off the communication of the Creeks with the Chicka-



saws and Choctaws, and separating them from the Seminole tribes, and other unfriendly Indians in Florida.

The retreat of the savages in Florida had been always looked upon as a place whence the United States might apprehend serious difficulties to arise. General Jackson entertained the belief that the British, through this channel, with the aid of the Spanish governor, had protected the Indians, and supplied them with arms and ammunition. He received certain information, when on his way to negotiate the treaty with the Indians, that about three hundred English troops had landed; were fortifying themselves at the mouth of the Apalachicola, and were endeavoring to excite the Indians to war. No time was lost in giving the government notice of what was passing, and of the course he deemed advisable to be pursued. The advantages to be secured from the possession of Pensacola he had frequently urged. But the government were unwilling to encounter the risk of a rupture with Spain, by authorizing the United States troops to enter her territory, while she occupied a neutral position; and Jackson was unable to obtain any answer to his repeated and pressing applications to be allowed to make a descent upon Pensacola, and reduce it, which, he gave it as his opinion, would bring the war in the south to a speedy termination. The secretary of war, General Armstrong, however, wrote him a letter on the 18th of July, 1814, which Jackson did not receive until the 17th of January, 1815, after the war was over, in which he remarked that, "If the Spanish authorities admit, feed, arm, and coöperate with the British and hostile Indians, we must strike, on the broad principle of self-preservation; under other and different circumstances we must forbear."

The general, afterward speaking of this transaction, remarked: "If this letter, or any hint that such a course would have been winked at by the government, had been received, it would have been in my power to have captured the British shipping in the bay. But acting on my own responsibility, against a neutral power, it became essential for me to proceed with more caution than my judgment or wishes approved, and consequently, important advantages were lost, which might have been secured."

Having ascertained, through some Indian spies, that a considerable English force had arrived in Florida, and that muskets and ammunition had been given to the Indians, General Jackson wrote to the Spanish governor of Pensacola, apprizing him of the information received, and demanding the surrender to him of such chiefs of the hostile Indians as were with him. The governor, after some delay, replied to this letter, denying that any hostile Indians were with him at that time; nor could he refuse those Indians assistance, on the ground of hospitality, when their distresses were so great, or surrender them without acting in open violation of the laws of nations. He also demanded to be informed if the United States were ignorant that, at the conquest of Florida, there was a treaty between Great Britain and the Creek Indians, and whether they did not know that it still existed between Spain and those tribes. In the same letter, the governor accused the United States government of having harbored traitors from the Mexican provinces, and of countenancing pirates who had committed robberies upon the merchant-vessels of Spain.

The general answered this letter by another equally high-toned, in which, among other things, he says: "Your excellency has been candid enough

to admit your having supplied the Indians with arms. In addition to this, I have learned that a British flag has been seen flying on one of your forts. All this is done, while you are pretending to be neutral. You can not be surprised, then, but, on the contrary, will provide a fort in your town for my soldiers and Indians, should I take it in my head to pay you a visit.

"In future, I beg you to withhold your insulting charges against my government, for one more inclined to listen to slander than I am; nor consider me any more as a diplomatic character, unless so proclaimed to you from the mouths of my cannon."

Captain Gordon, who had been despatched to Pensacola, on his return, reported to the general that he had seen from one hundred and fifty to two hundred officers and soldiers, a park of artillery, and about five hundred Indians, under the drill of British officers, armed with new muskets, and dressed in English uniform.

Jackson directly brought to the view of the government the information he had received, and again urged his favorite scheme, the reduction of Pensacola. Many difficulties were presented; but, to have all things in a state of readiness for action, when the time should arrive to authorize it, he addressed the governors of Tennessee, Louisiana, and the Mississippi territory, informing them of the necessity of holding all the forces allotted for the defence of the southwestern military district, in a state of readiness to march at any notice, and to any point where they might be required. The warriors of the different Indian tribes were ordered to be marshaled, and taken into pay of the government.

On the day after completing his business at Fort Jackson, he departed for Mobile, to place the country in a state of defence. He had already despatched his adjutant-general, Colonel Butler, to Tennessee, with orders to raise volunteers; and on the 27th September, 1814, two thousand able bodied men, well supplied with rifles and muskets, assembled under the command of General Coffee, at Fayetteville, Tennessee, to march for Mobile, a distance of at least four hundred miles. The regular forces, lately enlisted, marched from Nashville to Mobile in about fourteen days.

As General Jackson kept his own determination a secret, the idea could scarcely be entertained, that at this time he intended to advance against Pensacola on his own responsibility. He was not long in doubt as to the course proper to be pursued. Colonel Nicholls had arrived in August at that place, with a squadron of British ships, and taken up his quarters with the Spanish governor, Manriquez. He issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of the southwest, inviting them to join the British standard. After waiting two weeks, he made an unsuccessful attack on Fort Bowyer, which commanded the entrance to Mobile bay. The fort was defended by Major Lawrence in so gallant a manner, that the British were compelled to retire, with the loss of one of their ships and about two hundred men.

The British retired to Pensacola, and General Jackson determined, on his own responsibility, to enter Florida and take that town. General Coffee, with about twenty-eight hundred men, had arrived at Fort St. Stephens, on the Mobile river. General Jackson repaired to Coffee's camp, and made the necessary arrangement for marching into Florida. The quartermasters were destitute of funds, and the government credit was insufficient to procure supplies for the army. Thus situated, from his



own limited funds, and loans effected on his credit and responsibility, he succeeded in carrying his plans into effect, and in hastening his army to the place of its destination.

The difficulty of subsisting cavalry on the route, rendered it necessary that part of the brigade should proceed on foot. Although they had volunteered in the service as mounted men, and expected that no different disposition would be made of them, yet they cheerfully acquiesced in the order; and one thousand, abandoning their horses to subsist as they could, on the reeds that grew along the river-bottoms, prepared to commence their march. Being supplied with rations for the trip, on the 2d day of November the line of march was taken up, and Pensacola was reached on the 6th. The British and Spaniards had obtained intelligence of their approach and intended attack, and everything was in readiness to dispute their passage to the town. The forts were garrisoned, and prepared for resistance; batteries formed in the principal streets; and the British vessels moored within the bay, and so disposed as to command the main entrances which led to Pensacola.

The American army, consisting of Coffee's brigade, the regulars and a few Indians, in all about 3,000 men, had arrived within a mile and a half of the town, and formed their encampment. Before any final step was taken, General Jackson concluded to make a further application to the governor, and to learn of him what course, at the present moment, he would make it necessary for him to pursue. Major Piere was accordingly despatched with a flag, to disclose the object of the visit, and to require that the different forts, Barancas, St. Rose, and St. Michael, should be immediately surrendered, to be garrisoned and held by the United States, until Spain, by furnishing a sufficient force, might be able to protect the province, and preserve her neutral character.

This mission experienced no very favorable result. Major Piere, on approaching St. Michael's, was fired on, and compelled to return. The Spanish flag was displayed on the fort, and under it the outrage was committed, although the British flag had been associated with it until the day before. Notwithstanding this unprovoked outrage, General Jackson acted with forbearance, and sent another letter to the governor, asking an explanation. In answer, the governor stated that what had been done was not properly chargeable on him, but on the English; and he assured the general of his perfect willingness to receive any overtures he might be pleased to make.

Major Piere was again despatched to meet the offer of the governor. The surrender of the fortifications and munitions of war was demanded, to be receipted, and become the subject of future arrangement by the respective governments. The governor, after advising with his council, rejected the propositions; and as soon as the answer was received by Jackson, he resolved to urge his army forward, and, immediately commencing his march, proceeded to the accomplishment of his object, determined to effect it, in despite of danger and of consequences.

The American army was in motion early in the morning of the 7th of November. Pushing forward, they were soon in the streets, and sheltered by the houses from the cannon of the British vessels in the harbor. Captain Laval, who commanded the advance, fell, severely wounded, while he was charging a Spanish battery. From behind the houses and garden

fences, constant volleys of musketry were discharged, until the regulars arriving, met the Spaniards, and drove them from their positions.

The governor, panic-struck, and trembling for the safety of the city, hastened, bearing a flag in his hand, to find the commander, and seek to stay the carnage, and promised to consent to whatever terms might be demanded of him.

No time was lost by General Jackson in procuring what was considered by him of vital importance—the surrender of the forts. A capitulation was agreed on the next day; Pensacola and the different fortresses were to be retained by the United States, until Spain could better maintain her authority; while the rights and privileges of her citizens were to be regarded and respected.

Everything was in readiness the next day to take possession of Barancas fort, fourteen miles west of Pensacola. The American troops were ready for marching, when a tremendous explosion gave notice that all was destroyed. It was ascertained that the fort had been blown up, and that the British shipping had retired from the bay. On their retreat from Pensacola, the British carried off with them three or four hundred slaves, in spite of the remonstrances of the owners.

The American loss in this expedition was quite inconsiderable. The left column alone met resistance, and had fifteen or twenty wounded—none killed. Captain Laval and Lieutenant Flournoy were among the number wounded.

Deeming it unnecessary to think of garrisoning and attempting to hold the forts in Florida, Jackson concluded to redeliver all that had been surrendered, and retire from the territory. Two days, therefore, after entering Pensacola, he abandoned it. He wrote to the Spanish governor, concluding as follows: "The enemy has retreated; the hostile Creeks have fled to the forest; and I now retire from your town, leaving you to occupy your forts and protect the rights of your citizens."

It had been for some time rumored and generally accredited, that a very considerable force might be expected from England, destined to act against some part of the United States, most probably New Orleans. The importance of this place was well known to the enemy; it was the key to the entire commerce of the western country. Had a descent been made upon it a few months before, it might have been taken with all imaginable ease; but the British had confidently indulged the belief that they could possess it at any time, without much difficulty.

There was nothing now so much desired by General Jackson, as to be able to depart for New Orleans, where he apprehended the greatest danger, and where he believed his presence was most material. He had already effected a partial security for Mobile, and the inhabitants in that vicinity. His health was still delicate, which almost wholly unfitted him for the duties he had to encounter; but his constant expectation of a large force appearing on the coast, impelled him to action. General Coffee and Colonel Hinds, with their mounted men, were ordered to march, and take a position convenient to New Orleans, where they could find forage for their horses. Everything being arranged, and the command at Mobile left with General Winchester, Jackson, on the 22d of November, left Mobile for New Orleans, where he arrived on the 1st of December, and where his headquarters were for the present established.



General Jackson was now on a new theatre, and soon to be brought in collision with an enemy different from any he had yet encountered; the time had arrived to call forth all the energies he possessed. His body, worn down by sickness and exhaustion, with a mind constantly alive to the apprehension that, with the means given him, it would not be in his power to satisfy his own wishes, and the expectations of his country, were circumstances well calculated to depress him.

Louisiana, he well knew, was ill supplied with arms, and contained a mixed population, of different tongues, and doubtful as to their attachment to the government of the United States. No troops, arms, or ammunition, had yet descended from the states of Kentucky and Tennessee. His only reliance for defense, if suddenly assailed, was on the few regulars he had, the volunteers of General Coffee, and such troops as the state itself could furnish. Although continually agitated by gloomy forebodings, he breathed his fears to none. He appeared constantly serene, endeavored to impress a general belief that the country could and would be successfully defended. This apparent tranquillity and avowed certainty of success in the general, excited strong hopes, dispelled everything like fear, and impressed all with additional confidence.

While engaged in his operations on the Mobile, he had kept up a correspondence with Governor Claiborne, of Louisiana, urging him to the adoption of measures for the defense of the state. He had also forwarded an address to the people of Louisiana, endeavoring to excite them to a defense of their rights and liberties. Preparations for collecting troops in sufficient strength to repel an invasion, had been actively carried forward. The secretary of war had called upon the governors of Kentucky and Tennessee for quotas of the militia of those states, which requisitions were promptly answered by the governors, and the troops embarked for New Orleans in November.

While the troops from the upper country were expected, General Jackson was active in adopting such measures as could be earliest effected, and which were best calculated for resistance and defense. The volunteer corps of the city, and other militia, were reviewed, the forts in the vicinity visited, to ascertain their situation and capacity for defense, and new works were erected on the banks of the Mississippi, below the city. Having endeavored, without success, to induce the legislature of Louisiana promptly to suspend the writ of *habeas corpus*, and sensible that delay was dangerous, he assumed the responsibility, and superseded their deliberations, by declaring the city and environs of New Orleans under martial law.

The expected British force appeared off Pensacola, early in December, and on the 22d effected a landing of their troops, about fifteen miles southeast of New Orleans. The American gunboats on Lake Borgne, only five in number, were previously attacked by a force of forty-three British boats, and captured, after a gallant defense, on the 14th of December.

With the exception of the Kentucky troops, 2,250 in number, all the forces expected had arrived previous to the 21st of December. The Kentucky troops arrived on the 4th of January. The Tennessee troops, under General Carroll, were about 2,500 in number. The remaining portion of the American forces consisted of Coffee's brigade of mounted men, the Mississippi dragoons, the Louisiana militia, two regiments of United States regular troops, and a company of marines and artillery.

On the approach of the enemy being announced to General Jackson, on the 22d of December, he resolved to march and that night give them battle. He therefore advanced, at the head of about 2,000 men, and the following day a battle took place with a detachment of about 2,500 of the British army, nine miles below New Orleans. The enemy's force was increased during the day to four or five thousand, with which the Americans maintained a severe conflict of more than an hour, and retired in safety from the ground; with the loss of but 24 killed, 115 wounded, and 74 made prisoners, while the British loss, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, was about 400.

General Jackson now withdrew his troops to his intrenchments, four miles below the city. On the 28th of December, and the 1st of January, these were vigorously cannonaded by the enemy, but without success.

On the morning of the 8th of January, General Pakenham, commander-in-chief of the British, advanced against the American intrenchments with the main body of his army, numbering more than twelve thousand men.

Behind their breastworks of cotton bales, which no balls could penetrate, six thousand Americans, mostly militia, but the best marksmen in the land, silently awaited the attack. When the advancing columns had approached within reach of the batteries, they were met by an incessant and destructive cannonade; but, closing their ranks as fast as they were opened, they continued steadily to advance, until they came within reach of the American musketry and rifles. The extended American line now presented one vivid stream of fire, throwing the enemy into confusion, and covering the plain with the wounded and the dead.

In an attempt to rally his troops, General Pakenham was killed; General Gibbs, the second in command, was mortally wounded, and General Keene severely. The enemy now fled in dismay from the certain death which seemed to await them. General Lambert, on whom the command devolved, being unable to check the flight of the troops, retired to his encampment. On the 18th, the whole British army hastily withdrew, and retreated to their shipping.

The heartfelt joy at the glorious victory achieved on one side of the river, was clouded by the disaster witnessed on the other. A small body of the American forces was stationed on the right bank of the river. They were attacked by eight hundred chosen troops, under Colonel Thornton, and compelled to retreat.

The loss of the British in the main attack on the left bank has been variously stated. The killed, wounded, and prisoners, ascertained on the next day after the battle, by Colonel Hayne, the inspector-general, places it at 2,600; General Lambert's report to Lord Bathurst makes it 2,070. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was but thirteen.

On the 20th of January, 1815, General Jackson, with his army, returned to New Orleans. The general glow excited at beholding his entrance into the city, at the head of a victorious army, was manifested by all those feelings which patriotism and sympathy inspire. All greeted his return, and hailed him as their deliverer. The 23d was appointed a day of thanksgiving. Jackson repaired to the cathedral, which was crowded to excess. Children, robed in white, strewed his way with flowers, and an ode was recited as he passed. A *Te Deum* was sung, and Bishop Dubourg deliv-



ered an address, which he concluded by presenting the general with a wreath of laurel.

Martial law still prevailed in New Orleans, and in February General Jackson arrested Mr. Louallier, a member of the legislature, on a charge of exciting mutiny among his troops, by a publication, on the 10th of February, in the Louisiana Gazette, stating that a treaty of peace had been signed. Louallier applied to Judge Hall for a writ of *habeas corpus*, which was immediately granted. Instead of obeying the writ, the general arrested the judge, and sent him from the city on the 11th of February. On the 13th of the same month, an express reached headquarters, from the war department at Washington city, announcing the conclusion of peace between Great Britain and the United States, and directing a cessation of hostilities. The previous unofficial intelligence on the 10th had been received by Mr. Livingston, through Admiral Cochrane, of the British fleet.

On being restored to the exercise of his functions, Judge Hall ordered General Jackson to appear before him, to show cause why an attachment for contempt should not be awarded, on the ground that he had refused to obey a writ issued to him, detained an original paper belonging to the court, and imprisoned the judge. The general obeyed the summons, and appeared in court in the garb of a citizen, to receive the sentence of the court, having previously made a written defense. The judge sentenced the general to pay a fine of one thousand dollars, which he paid. A sum was soon raised by the people, to relieve him from the payment, but he declined to receive it. The amount, with interest, was subsequently refunded to Jackson, by act of Congress, in 1844.

The war being ended, and the militia having been discharged, and returned to their homes, General Jackson left New Orleans for Nashville, where he arrived in May, 1815, and was received by his fellow-citizens with the most cordial feelings. An address was delivered at the courthouse, in behalf of the citizens, welcoming his return. He then retired to his family residence, to repair a broken constitution, and to enjoy that repose to which, for eighteen months, he had been a stranger.

The annunciation of the triumphant defense of New Orleans was, in every section of the United States, hailed with acclamation. The legislatures of many of the states voted to him their approbation and thanks for what he had done. The Congress of the United States did the same, and directed a gold medal to be presented to him, commemorative of the event.

The president, on the resignation of General Thomas Pinckney, in 1815, appointed General Jackson commander-in-chief of the southern division of the United States. Toward the close of the autumn of 1815, he visited Washington city, and on his way met with continued demonstrations of respect from the people. At this period, Colonel Burr wrote from New York, to his son-in-law, Ex-Governor Alston, of South Carolina, dated November 20, 1815, recommending the adoption of measures to bring forward the nomination of General Jackson, as a candidate for president of the United States, previous to the nomination of James Monroe by a congressional caucus, which was then anticipated to take place in December following. "Nothing is wanting," says Burr, "but a respectable nomination before the proclamation of the Virginia caucus, and Jackson's

success is inevitable. Jackson is on his way to Washington. If you should have any confidential friend among the members of Congress from your state, charge him to caution Jackson against the perfidious caresses with which he will be overwhelmed at Washington." On the 11th of December, Colonel Burr wrote to Governor Alston, saying, that since the date of his last, "things are wonderfully advanced. These will require a letter from yourself and others, advising Jackson what is doing—that communications have been had with the northern states, requiring him only to be passive, and asking from him a list of persons to whom you may address your letters." To this letter Governor Alston replied, on the 16th February, 1816, informing Colonel Burr, that his letter was received in January, "too late, of course, had circumstances been ever so favorable, to be acted upon in the manner proposed. I fully coincide with you in sentiment; but the spirit, the energy, the health necessary to give practical effect to sentiment, are all gone. I feel too much alone, too entirely unconnected with the world, to take much interest in anything."

It appears from this correspondence, that accidental circumstances alone, prevented the public nomination of General Jackson by his native state, as a candidate for president, at a very early period after the war with Great Britain, and caused the bringing forward of his name to be deferred until the last term of Mr. Monroe's administration, viz., in 1822. In the spring of 1816, General Jackson again visited New Orleans. After stationing the army in the southern section of his division, he concluded a treaty with the Indians, the object of which was to obtain from them the relinquishment of all the claim they pretended to have to lands within the limits of the United States, and which had been previously ceded by them.

In the year 1818, the services of General Jackson, in his military capacity, were again called into requisition. The Seminole Indians of Florida, had shown their hostility to the United States, by committing depredations on the southern frontiers. General Gaines had been ordered by the president, in October, 1817, to take the necessary measures for the defence of the inhabitants of that section of the Union. He accordingly built three forts, and proceeded to expel the Indians, who resisted him, as far as was in their power, and committed various outrages. At the mouth of Flint river, the Indians fell in with a party of forty men, under Lieutenant Scott, all of whom they killed but six, who escaped by swimming.

When the news of this massacre reached General Jackson, he raised an army of two thousand five hundred volunteers, and mustered them as in the service of the United States. After a rapid march, he arrived with his army, on the 1st of April, at the Mickasucky villages, which were deserted on his approach. Having burnt the villages, he marched to St. Marks, then a Spanish post on the Appalachee bay, in Florida.

Two persons, who were traders with the Indians, namely, Arbuthnot, a Scotchman, and Ambrister, a British lieutenant of marines, were taken prisoners by Jackson, near St. Marks, and confined. They were both accused of exciting the Indians to hostility against the United States, and supplying them with arms and ammunition. They were tried by a court-martial, consisting of officers of the militia, and found guilty. One of them was sentenced to be shot, and the other to be hung, and their execution took place by order of General Jackson.

About the middle of May, General Jackson arrived at the Escambia,



near Pensacola, having been informed that a body of hostile Indians had been harbored at that place. He took possession of Pensacola and Fort Barancas, notwithstanding a remonstrance from the governor of the territory. Two Indian chiefs, who were captured, were hung, by order of General Jackson, under circumstances which he deemed justifiable, but for which he was censured by many.

On the 2d June, 1818, General Jackson addressed a letter to the secretary of war, at the close of which he says: "The Seminole war may now be considered as at a close; tranquillity is again restored to the southern frontier of the United States, and, as long as a cordon of military posts is maintained along the gulf of Mexico, America has nothing to apprehend from either foreign or Indian hostilities. The immutable principles of self-defence justified the occupancy of the Floridas, and the same principles will warrant the American government in holding it, until such time as Spain can guaranty, by an adequate military force, the maintaining of her authority within the colony."

After the campaign in Florida, General Jackson returned to Nashville, and shortly afterward he resigned his commission in the army. During the session of Congress, in January, 1819, he visited Washington, when his transactions in the Seminole war became the subject of investigation by Congress. After a long and exciting debate on the subject, resolutions of censure, for his proceedings in Florida, were rejected in the house of representatives, by a large majority, and his course was sustained by the president and a majority of the cabinet, although the Spanish posts in Florida were restored.

When the congressional investigation had terminated favorably to General Jackson, he visited the cities of Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, and various other parts of the United States, being received with enthusiasm by his friends in all quarters, and with distinguished attention by the public authorities and others.

In June, 1821, the president appointed him governor of Florida, which office he accepted, and in August he took possession of the territory, according to the treaty of cession. The Spanish governor, Callava, having refused to give up certain public documents, deemed of importance, he was taken into custody, by order of Governor Jackson, and committed to prison. The papers being found, under a search-warrant issued by Jackson, Callava was immediately set at liberty. Jackson remained but a few months in Florida; for, disliking the situation, and disapproving of the extent of powers vested in him as governor, he resigned the office, and again retired to Tennessee. President Monroe offered him the appointment of minister to Mexico, which he declined, in 1823.

In July, 1822, General Jackson was nominated by the legislature of Tennessee as a candidate for president of the United States. This nomination was repeated by assemblages of the people in several other states. In the autumn of 1823, he was elected by the legislature a senator from Tennessee, and took his seat in the senate of the United States in December, 1823. He voted for the protective tariff of 1824.

The popularity of General Jackson with the people of the United States, was shown at the presidential election of 1824, when he received a greater number of electoral votes than either of his competitors, namely, ninety-nine. Mr. Adams received eighty-four, Mr. Crawford forty-one, and Mr.

Clay thirty-seven. The election consequently devolved on the house of representatives, where, by the constitutional provisions, the decision is made by states. Mr. Adams was elected by that body, receiving the votes of thirteen states; General Jackson seven states; and Mr. Crawford four states. The result caused much dissatisfaction among the friends of General Jackson, but a large proportion of those who had supported Mr. Crawford, as well as most of those who had supported Mr. Clay, preferred Mr. Adams to General Jackson.

During General La Fayette's visit to the United States in 1824-5, he passed through Tennessee, and was received by General Jackson, at the Hermitage, with his accustomed hospitality.

After the election of Mr. Adams to the presidency, the opposition to his administration was soon concentrated upon General Jackson as a candidate to succeed him. In October, 1825, he was again nominated by the legislature of Tennessee for president, on which occasion he resigned his seat in the senate of the United States, in a speech delivered to the legislature, giving his views on public affairs. During the exciting canvass which resulted in his election to the presidency in 1828, by a majority of more than two to one of the electoral votes, over Mr. Adams, he remained in private life.

In January, 1828, he was present, by invitation, at New Orleans, at the celebration of the anniversary of his victory. Before departing for Washington, in 1829, to take the reins of government, he met with a severe affliction in the death of Mrs. Jackson. This loss bore heavily upon him for some time, and he came into power with gloomy feelings. He reached the national capital early in February, in a plain carriage.

The events of his administration are given in the Statesman's Manual, to those pages the reader is referred for the history of eight years of his life. In 1822 he was reelected to the presidency; and at the close of his second term, in March, 1837, having published a farewell address to the people of the United States, he retired to his favorite residence, at the Hermitage, in Tennessee, where he passed the remnant of his days, generally a quiet, but not disinterested spectator of public events. He was a member of the Presbyterian church, and religious faith and confidence appear to have soothed and cheered all the latter period of his life. For the last year or two of his life he was infirm of body, but retained his mental faculties undiminished up to the hour of his decease, which took place on the 8th of June, 1845. His countrymen throughout the United States joined in testimonials of respect to his memory. He left no blood relatives, and his estate was bequeathed to members of the Donelson family, who were the relations of Mrs. Jackson.

The violence of political strife will long confuse men's judgment of the character and abilities of General Jackson; but all will accord to him the praise of great firmness, energy, decision, and disinterestedness; of remarkable military skill, and ardent patriotism. With regard to his qualifications and services as a statesman, his countrymen have been, and are divided in opinion. It is, perhaps, not yet time to speak decisively on this point, but it must be left for the impartial verdict of posterity.

The personal appearance and private character of General Jackson are thus described by his friend and biographer, Mr. Eaton, previous to his election to the presidency: "In the person of General Jackson is per-



ceived nothing of the robust and elegant. He is six feet and an inch high, remarkably straight and spare, and weighs not more than one hundred and forty-five pounds. His conformation appears to disqualify him for hard-ship; yet, accustomed to it from early life, few are capable of enduring fatigue to the same extent, or with less injury. His dark blue eyes, with brows arched and slightly projecting, possess a marked expression; but when from any cause excited, they sparkle with peculiar lustre and penetration. In his manners he is pleasing—in his address commanding; while his countenance, marked with firmness and decision, beams with a strength and intelligence that strikes at first sight. In his deportment there is nothing repulsive. Easy, affable, and familiar, he is open and accessible to all. Influenced by the belief that merit should constitute the only difference in men, his attention is equally bestowed on honest poverty as on titled consequence. His moral character is without reproach; and by those who know him most intimately he is most esteemed. Benevolence in him is a prominent virtue. He was never known to pass distress without seeking to assist and to relieve it.”

# POPULAR VOTE IN 1828, 1832, 1836, 1840, 1844, 1848, AND 1852.

| STATES.              | 1828.    |         | 1832.               |          | 1836.      |         | 1840.     |            | 1844.   |         | 1848.   |         | 1852.   |         |
|----------------------|----------|---------|---------------------|----------|------------|---------|-----------|------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
|                      | Jackson. | Adams.  | Jackson.            | Clay.    | Van Buren. | Others. | Harrison. | Van Buren. | Polk.   | Clay.   | Taylor. | Cass.   | Pierce. | Scott.  |
| Maine.....           | 13,927   | 20,773  | 20,750              | None.    | 22,126     | 24,930  | 40,264    | 31,933     | 44,155  | 42,106  | 47,544  | 44,802  | 34,705  | 16,660  |
| New Hampshire.....   | 20,682   | 24,076  | No opp. to Jackson. | Jackson. | 10,068     | 15,637  | 28,471    | 33,991     | 36,223  | 24,850  | 30,452  | 31,363  | 26,881  | 15,038  |
| Vermont.....         | 8,205    | 24,784  | 5,919               | None.    | 9,979      | 9,688   | 19,518    | 16,985     | 25,188  | 19,193  | 25,922  | 26,597  | 26,876  | 17,548  |
| Massachusetts.....   | 6,019    | 23,865  | 4,049               | 2,528    | 3,653      | 8,383   | 11,297    | 7,617      | 13,477  | 12,818  | 18,217  | 15,370  | 18,647  | 17,255  |
| Rhode Island.....    | 2,821    | 2,754   | 28,749              | 1,436    | 26,120     | 35,962  | 60,391    | 48,289     | 59,915  | 60,039  | 64,705  | 58,419  | 57,018  | 58,898  |
| Connecticut.....     | 4,448    | 13,829  | 36,246              | 48,396   | 33,435     | 36,955  | 58,489    | 32,616     | 59,915  | 61,262  | 67,141  | 49,720  | 57,068  | 57,068  |
| New York.....        | 140,763  | 155,413 | 81,246              | 76,539   | 96,948     | 105,405 | 148,157   | 124,782    | 149,061 | 155,113 | 138,359 | 154,773 | 169,220 | 152,525 |
| Pennsylvania.....    | 21,950   | 23,758  | 81,246              | 76,539   | 96,948     | 105,405 | 148,157   | 124,782    | 149,061 | 155,113 | 138,359 | 154,773 | 169,220 | 152,525 |
| New Jersey.....      | 101,652  | 50,848  | 81,552              | 15,472   | 32,480     | 41,281  | 65,308    | 47,675     | 58,515  | 45,612  | 53,215  | 56,629  | 80,597  | 80,901  |
| Delaware.....        | 4,349    | 4,769   | 14,147              | 5,429    | 18,097     | 14,983  | 45,537    | 29,760     | 41,369  | 31,231  | 32,671  | 40,077  | 36,642  | 28,944  |
| Maryland.....        | 24,578   | 25,759  | 5,192               | Maj.     | 2,400      | 8,337   | 22,972    | 6,049      | 9,546   | 5,504   | 7,588   | 9,900   | 12,173  | 7,404   |
| Virginia.....        | 26,752   | 12,101  | 8,422               | None.    | 7,360      | 1,238   | 22,907    | 21,098     | 27,703  | 24,223  | 23,940  | 30,687  | 41,842  | 33,890  |
| North Carolina.....  | 37,857   | 13,918  | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| South Carolina*..... | 18,709   | None.   | 20,750              | None.    | 22,126     | 24,930  | 40,264    | 31,933     | 44,155  | 42,106  | 47,544  | 44,802  | 34,705  | 16,660  |
| Georgia.....         | 17,138   | 1,938   | No opp. to Jackson. | Jackson. | 10,068     | 15,637  | 28,471    | 33,991     | 36,223  | 24,850  | 30,452  | 31,363  | 26,881  | 15,038  |
| Alabama.....         | 6,763    | 1,581   | 5,919               | None.    | 9,979      | 9,688   | 19,518    | 16,985     | 25,188  | 19,193  | 25,922  | 26,597  | 26,876  | 17,548  |
| Mississippi.....     | 4,005    | 4,077   | 4,049               | 2,528    | 3,653      | 8,383   | 11,297    | 7,617      | 13,477  | 12,818  | 18,217  | 15,370  | 18,647  | 17,255  |
| Louisiana.....       | 44,090   | 2,240   | 28,749              | 1,436    | 26,120     | 35,962  | 60,391    | 48,289     | 59,915  | 60,039  | 64,705  | 58,419  | 57,018  | 58,898  |
| Tennessee.....       | 39,084   | 31,172  | 36,246              | 48,396   | 33,435     | 36,955  | 58,489    | 32,616     | 59,915  | 61,262  | 67,141  | 49,720  | 57,068  | 57,068  |
| Kentucky.....        | 67,597   | 63,306  | 81,246              | 76,539   | 96,948     | 105,405 | 148,157   | 124,782    | 149,061 | 155,113 | 138,359 | 154,773 | 169,220 | 152,525 |
| Ohio.....            | 22,237   | 17,052  | 81,246              | 76,539   | 96,948     | 105,405 | 148,157   | 124,782    | 149,061 | 155,113 | 138,359 | 154,773 | 169,220 | 152,525 |
| Indiana.....         | 6,763    | 1,581   | 14,147              | 5,429    | 18,097     | 14,983  | 45,537    | 29,760     | 41,369  | 31,231  | 32,671  | 40,077  | 36,642  | 28,944  |
| Illinois.....        | 8,222    | 3,422   | 5,192               | Maj.     | 2,400      | 8,337   | 22,972    | 6,049      | 9,546   | 5,504   | 7,588   | 9,900   | 12,173  | 7,404   |
| Missouri.....        | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| Arkansas.....        | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| Michigan.....        | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| Florida.....         | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| Iowa.....            | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| Wisconsin.....       | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| Texas.....           | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |
| California.....      | None.    | None.   | None.               | None.    | None.      | None.   | None.     | None.      | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   | None.   |

\* No vote by the people; Presidential Electors chosen by the Legislature. † Incomplete.

Prior to 1828, in some of the States, the Electors were chosen by the Legislatures; in other States the District System prevailed. We have therefore omitted the popular vote previous to the general adoption of the present system.





|          |                                    |    |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |     |
|----------|------------------------------------|----|---|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|----|----|-----|
| 1825.    | Andrew Jackson, Tenn.              | 9  | 8 | 1  | 8  | 23 | 1 | 2  | 7  | 15 | 11 | 5  | 2 | 11 | 11 | 1  | 99  |
| Pres't.  | John Q. Adams, Mass.               | 9  | 8 | 26 | 8  | 23 | 1 | 2  | 3  | 15 | 11 | 5  | 2 | 11 | 11 | 1  | 84  |
| V. Pres. | Wm. H. Crawford, Ga.               | 9  | 8 | 5  | 8  | 23 | 2 | 1  | 1  | 15 | 11 | 5  | 2 | 11 | 11 | 1  | 81  |
|          | Henry Clay, Ky.                    | 9  | 7 | 29 | 3  | 28 | 1 | 10 | 10 | 15 | 11 | 5  | 3 | 11 | 11 | 1  | 87  |
|          | John C. Calhoun, S. C.             | 9  | 7 | 29 | 3  | 28 | 1 | 10 | 10 | 15 | 11 | 5  | 3 | 11 | 11 | 1  | 182 |
|          | Nathan Sanford, N. Y.              | 9  | 7 | 29 | 3  | 28 | 1 | 10 | 10 | 15 | 11 | 5  | 3 | 11 | 11 | 1  | 30  |
|          | Vote in the H. of Representatives. |    |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |     |
|          | Adams                              | 7  | 6 | 5  | 12 | 2  | 6 | 18 | 1  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 1 | 2  | 8  | 10 | 13  |
|          | Jackson                            | 7  | 6 | 5  | 12 | 2  | 6 | 18 | 1  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 1 | 2  | 8  | 10 | 7   |
|          | Crawford                           | 7  | 6 | 5  | 12 | 2  | 6 | 18 | 1  | 1  | 1  | 3  | 1 | 2  | 8  | 10 | 4   |
|          | 1829.                              |    |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |     |
| Pres't.  | Andrew Jackson, Tenn.              | 1  | 8 | 20 | 8  | 28 | 3 | 6  | 5  | 24 | 15 | 5  | 3 | 5  | 11 | 14 | 178 |
| V. Pres. | John Q. Adams, Mass.               | 1  | 8 | 16 | 8  | 28 | 3 | 6  | 5  | 24 | 15 | 5  | 3 | 5  | 11 | 14 | 83  |
|          | John C. Calhoun, S. C.             | 1  | 8 | 20 | 8  | 28 | 3 | 6  | 5  | 24 | 15 | 5  | 3 | 5  | 11 | 14 | 171 |
|          | Richard Rush, Pa.                  | 1  | 8 | 16 | 8  | 28 | 3 | 6  | 5  | 24 | 15 | 5  | 3 | 5  | 11 | 14 | 83  |
|          | William Smith, S. C.               | 1  | 8 | 20 | 8  | 28 | 3 | 6  | 5  | 24 | 15 | 5  | 3 | 5  | 11 | 14 | 7   |
|          | 1833.                              |    |   |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |    |    |   |    |    |    |     |
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|          | Martin Van Buren, N. Y.            | 10 | 7 | 42 | 8  | 30 | 3 | 5  | 3  | 23 | 15 | 7  | 4 | 5  | 15 | 21 | 189 |
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| Pres't.  | Martin Van Buren, N. Y.            | 10 | 7 | 42 | 8  | 30 | 3 | 5  | 3  | 23 | 15 | 7  | 4 | 5  | 15 | 21 | 170 |
| V. Pres. | Wm. H. Harrison, Ohio.             | 10 | 7 | 42 | 8  | 30 | 3 | 5  | 3  | 23 | 15 | 7  | 4 | 5  | 15 | 21 | 73  |
|          | R. M. Johnson, Ky.                 | 10 | 7 | 42 | 8  | 30 | 3 | 5  | 3  | 23 | 15 | 7  | 4 | 5  | 15 | 21 | 147 |
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| V. Pres. | Martin Van Buren, N. Y.            | 10 | 7 | 42 | 8  | 30 | 3 | 5  | 3  | 23 | 15 | 7  | 4 | 5  | 15 | 21 | 60  |
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## SALARIES OF UNITED STATES PUBLIC OFFICERS.

THE compensation of the following public officers of the United States is at present fixed by law at the amounts stated:—

President of the United States, \$25,000 per annum; Vice President, \$5,000 per annum; Secretaries of State, Treasury, Navy, and War, each, \$6,000 per annum; Postmaster General, \$6,000 per annum; Attorney General, \$4,000 per annum; Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, \$5,000 per annum; Associate Justices, \$4,500 per annum.

From the first Congress, in 1789, inclusive, until March 4, 1795, Senators and Representatives received each \$6 per diem, and \$6 for every twenty miles travel. From March 4, 1795, to March 4, 1796, Senators received \$7, and Representatives \$6 per diem. From March 4, 1796, until December 4, 1815, the per diem was \$6, and the mileage \$6, to Senators and Representatives. From December 4, 1815, until March 4, 1817, each Senator and Representative received \$1,500 per annum, with a proportional deduction for absence, for any cause but sickness. The President of the Senate pro tempore, and Speaker of the House, \$3,000 per annum, each. From March 4, 1817, the compensation to members of both Houses has been \$8 per diem, and \$8 for every twenty miles travel; and to the President of the Senate pro tempore, and Speaker of the House, \$16 per diem.

The pay of Ministers Plenipotentiary is \$9,000 per annum, salary, beside \$9,000 for an outfit. Secretaries of Legation receive \$2,000, and Chargé d'Affaires, \$4,500 per annum. To entitle any chargé d'affaires, or secretary of any legation or embassy to any foreign country, or secretary of any minister plenipotentiary, to the above compensation, they must respectively be appointed by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; but in the recess of the Senate, the President is authorized to make such appointments, which must be submitted to the Senate at the next session thereafter, for their advice and consent; and no compensation is allowed to any chargé d'affaires, or any secretary of legation, embassy, or minister, who shall not be so appointed.

Consuls of the United States, generally so called, are, in effect, agents for commerce and seamen; which latter denomination, for particular reasons, is given to some of this class of public officers. They receive no yearly salaries (except at Paris and London, Tangier, Tunis, and Tripoli, where they have an annual salary of \$2,000), and their compensation is derived from the fees which are allowed by law. The amount of these fees depends, of course, upon the state of foreign trade, which is perpetually fluctuating. Consuls of the United States, for commercial purposes, are regularly admitted and recognized, as to their official functions, in the ports of Christian Europe; but in the colonies of the European nations, agents for commerce and seamen mostly exercise the duties of their station under courtesy, without any formal recognition; and, in some instances, from the jealousy of colonial policy, they have not been permitted to exercise them at all. In their public capacity, consuls and agents for commerce and seamen are principally occupied in verifying, in different forms, the legality of the trade of the United States with foreign nations, and in relieving and sending home American seamen, who, by accident or misfortune, are left destitute within the jurisdiction of their several consulates and agencies.

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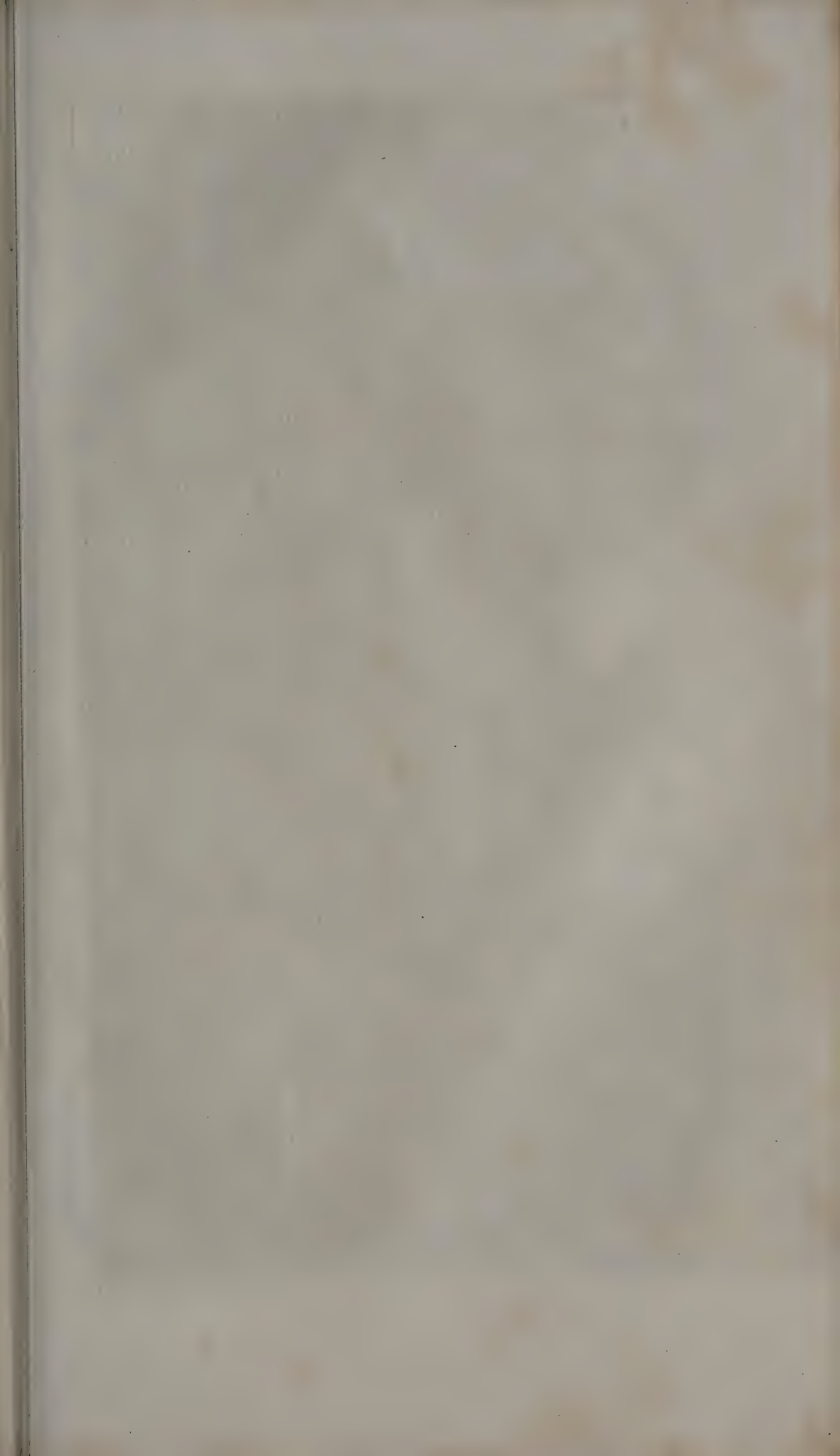
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1854.



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## PREFACE.

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THE design of this work is to afford the reader, in a condensed form, a statistical and descriptive view of the several nations of the earth,—to describe their governments, institutions, population, commerce, agriculture, manufactures, arts, sciences, education, religion, laws, manners and customs, and to briefly notice the prominent events of their history. Knowledge of this kind has become a necessary qualification for the pursuits of commerce and industry, and much of the ordinary and current business of life. The details have been brought down to as late a date as possible, in order to exhibit as nearly as can be accomplished, a contemporaneous view of the nations at the close of the first half of the nineteenth century. In a work involving such an infinite variety of details, some errors and imperfections will unavoidably occur. Balbi observes, with reference to works of this description, that they are necessarily a compound of things which are, with things which have ceased to be. “How,” he asks, “can one be informed of all the changes that take place in the course of a few years in the capitals of Europe, still more in those of Asia, Africa and America? To compose a work which should exhibit a complete picture of the globe at a particular period, it would be necessary to have authentic documents, all of the same date, and that a recent one; which never has been, and never can be.” All the merit the compiler of this volume can claim, is that of being laborious, and of endeavoring to be faithful. In the prosecution of his task he has made great exertions to avail himself of recent and reliable sources of information, and has had at his disposal a large and valuable library.



An attempt to give credit in the pages to the various works to which he is indebted, would have uselessly encumbered the book with notes and references of very little consequence to the general reader. A book of this kind must necessarily be a compilation,—and the compiler has availed himself of the labors of his predecessors, so far as they could be made useful to his purpose. “As well might a traveler presume to claim the fee-simple of all the country which he has surveyed, as a historian or geographer expect to preclude those who come after him from making a proper use of his labors. If the former writers have seen accurately and related faithfully, the latter ought to have the privilege of declaring the same facts.” Those who have preceded him have availed themselves of the observations of their predecessors, and this work in its turn may save some future compiler a portion of his toil. Every nation of the earth, civilized or savage; every rock of the ocean large enough for a sea gull to rest upon, has been made the subject of a volume; and as such works become multiplied, detailed and diffuse, it becomes a useful labor to abridge, and present in synoptical views all that is really valuable of their contents. In this way the compiler has endeavored to irrigate his pages, not only with rills and rivulets from those great reservoirs of geographical and statistical knowledge, the works of Balbi, Hassel, Malte Brun, McCulloch, Murray and his talented collaborators of the *Encyclopædia of Geography*, but he has also drawn freely from the fountains of scientific observation contained in the journals of enlightened travelers and voyagers to distant regions. His statistics of civilized nations are derived from authentic documents.

The engravings in the volume are not introduced for any purpose of mere embellishment; and it was for some time a question, whether the plan of a work of this kind would admit of their introduction;—but as they are now very generally used in descriptive works, both in this country and England, we have inserted such as will be found of more utility in conveying a clearer idea of the objects than can be accomplished by elaborate description. The drawings are believed to

be generally correct, and to many readers they will be acceptable, although some of them may present familiar views, which have been delineated repeatedly by the demand for embellished works. They may at least serve to call the attention of the young to the contents of the work, by arresting their curiosity,—an incentive that often proves the source of valuable attainments.

Believing the kind of information contained in this work to be of importance to all classes of society,—that none are so exalted as to rise above, and none so humble as to sink below, the common want of a knowledge of the world they live in,—and believing, also, that but few of our busy population have the leisure to search through a multitude of volumes to obtain the information condensed in this, the compiler respectfully tenders the result of his labors, in the hope that it may afford to the young a useful auxiliary in the pursuit of knowledge,—to the old, a work of authentic reference,—and to all a better knowledge of the World's vast Volume.





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VOLUME OF THE WORLD.





# VOLUME OF THE WORLD.

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## THE WORLD.

To an observer whose view is not obstructed, the earth presents itself as a vast circular plain, on the circumference of which the heavens appear to rest. Accordingly, in remote antiquity the earth was regarded as a flat circular body, floating on the water. But the great distance which men were enabled to travel soon refuted this limited idea as an optical illusion; and even in remote antiquity the spherical form of the earth began to be suspected. On this supposition alone can all the phenomena relating to it be explained. How could the earth appear, from every possible position, as a surface bounded by the firmament, if it were not a sphere encircled by it? How else can the fact be explained, that we see the tops of towers and of mountains at a distance, before the bases are visible; and the masts of ships at sea before the hulls are above the horizon? How otherwise account for its circular shadow on the moon during an eclipse,—the gradual appearance and disappearance of the sun,—the inequality of day and night,—the changes in the position and course of the stars, and the gradual disappearance of some, and appearance of others, as we go from the equator to the poles. Finally, if the earth were not spherical, it would be impossible to sail round it, which is frequently done. The earth, however, is not an exact sphere, but is flattened at the poles. Philosophers were first led to observe this, by the variations in the vibrations of the pendulum under the equator and near the poles. It was found that the pendulum performed its vibrations slower, the nearer it approached the equator, and hence was inferred the variableness of the force of gravity. This was easily explained; because the circle of daily revolution being greatest at the equator, all bodies revolve proportionally faster there than at the poles, so that the centrifugal force is greater and the force of gravity less, than at other parts of the earth's surface; and because, at the equator, the centrifugal force is exactly opposed to that of gravity; but towards the poles, being oblique to it, produces less effect. From these observations, it is justly inferred, that the earth is a sphere flattened at the poles; and this form is satisfactorily accounted for, by the fact, that the particles of a yielding mass, which revolves on its own axis, depart from the poles and tend to the centre, by which the poles are, of course, flattened, and the middle elevated.

Another important desideratum for a more intimate acquaintance with the earth, was, to ascertain its magnitude. The labors of the ancients in this respect, were all fruitless, owing to their want of suitable instruments. Accurate results were first obtained in 1615. Willibrord Snellius, a Dutch-



man, first struck into the only true way, and measured an arc of a meridian from Alcazar to Leyden and Bergen op Zoom, by means of triangles. After him the measurements of Picard, and the later ones of Maupertius, approximated nearer the truth. These made the circumference of a great circle of the earth 25,000 miles. In this calculation the earth is regarded as a perfect sphere. Further measurements of all parts of the surface of the earth will be necessary to determine, rigidly and accurately, its true magnitude.

If we take a view of the earth in its relation to the solar system, astronomy teaches us that it is an opaque body revolving around the sun, and receiving from it light and heat; that it completes its revolution in about 365 days and 6 hours. The orbit of the earth is an ellipse, with the sun in one of its foci. Hence the earth is not equally distant from the sun in all parts of the year;—its least distance is estimated at 93,336,000 miles; and its greatest at 95,484,572; making a difference of more than 2,000,000 of miles. In winter we are nearest the sun, and in summer farthest from it; for the difference of the seasons is not occasioned by the greater or less distance of the earth from the sun, but by the more or less oblique direction of the sun's rays. The length of the path traveled over by the earth is estimated at 568,000,000 of miles, and as this immense distance is passed over in a year, the earth must move 17 miles a second. Besides this annual motion around the sun, the earth has also a daily motion on its own axis. This diurnal revolution is the occasion of the alternation of day and night; but as the axis of the earth forms an angle of  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees, with its orbit, the sun ascends from March 21 to June 21, about  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees above the equator towards the north pole, and descends again towards the equator from June 21 to September 23; it then sinks till December 21, about  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees below the equator, towards the south pole, and returns again to the equator by March 21. This arrangement is the cause of the seasons, and the inequality of day and night attending them.

To the physical knowledge of the earth belongs especially the consideration of its surface and its interior. The surface of the earth contains over 196,000,000 square miles, scarcely one-third of which is dry land; the remaining two-thirds are water. Of the surface of the earth, Europe comprises about one 54th part; Asia, one 14th; Africa a 17th, and America a 16th. The islands of the Pacific, taken together, are somewhat larger than Europe.

The interior of the earth is entirely unknown to us, as the depth to which we have been able to penetrate is nothing in comparison with its diameter. Some modern speculators are of opinion that the interior is composed of a metallic mass. Respecting the origin and gradual formation of the earth there are various hypotheses.

POPULATION OF THE WORLD.\*

|                                                      |             |
|------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| Africa, variously estimated from 60,000,000 to ..... | 101,000,000 |
| North America.....                                   | 33,981,054  |
| South America.....                                   | 16,326,000  |
| West Indies.....                                     | 3,688,762   |
| Asia, including Islands .....                        | 53,995,816  |
| Australia and Australian group of Islands .....      | 429,600,000 |
| Europe .....                                         | 1,368,000   |
| Polynesia (no data) estimated .....                  | 252,589,972 |
|                                                      | 1,500,000   |
| Total population of the Globe .....                  | 840,053,788 |

\* American Almanac, 1851.

## COMPARATIVE ESTIMATES OF THE POPULATION OF THE WORLD.

|              | Wiemar.       | Balbi.      | Hassel.     | Grabery.    | Volney.     | Malte Brun  |
|--------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| America..... | 43,800,120    | 39,000,000  | 30,483,500  | 24,000,000  | 20,000,000  | 40,000,000  |
| Europe.....  | 232,200,646   | 227,700,000 | 179,808,000 | 180,000,000 | 142,000,000 | 190,000,000 |
| Africa.....  | 101,313,478   | 60,000,000  | 102,412,000 | 99,000,000  | 30,000,000  | 70,000,000  |
| Asia.....    | 654,610,049   | 390,000,000 | 392,575,500 | 366,000,000 | 240,000,000 | 340,000,000 |
| Oceanica.... | 1,473,955     | 20,300,000  | 2,000,000   | 17,000,000  | 5,000,000   | 20,000,000  |
| Total.....   | 1,033,398,251 | 737,000,000 | 707,279,000 | 686,000,000 | 437,000,000 | 660,000,000 |

According to Blumenbach, mankind are divided into five classes or families. His system is founded on the different formations of the skull. To these races he has given the names of—

1. The CAUCASIAN, comprising the inhabitants of Europe, with their descendants in America, and those of Western Asia and Northern Africa.

2. The MONGOLIAN, comprising the inhabitants of Central and Eastern Asia; the Fins and Laplanders of Europe, the Esquimaux, and other Arctic tribes of America.

3. The ETHIOPIC, or inhabitants of Central and Southern Africa, Australia, and some of the oceanic islands.

4. The AMERICAN, or natives of North and South America and the West India Islands. This family resembles the Mongolian.

5. The MALAYASIAN, inhabiting Malay, Java, Sumatra, and some of the islands of the Pacific. By some naturalists the Malay is considered a sub-variety of the Caucasian.

## ENUMERATION, ACCORDING TO HASSEL.

|                     |             |
|---------------------|-------------|
| Caucasian Race..... | 436,625,000 |
| Mongolian ".....    | 389,310,000 |
| Malayasian ".....   | 32,000,000  |
| Ethiopic ".....     | 69,633,300  |
| American ".....     | 10,287,000  |

## ASCERTAINED NUMBER OF LANGUAGES.

|                        |       |
|------------------------|-------|
| In America.....        | 1,214 |
| Europe.....            | 545   |
| Asia and Oceanica..... | 991   |
| Africa.....            | 276   |

Total of Languages and Dialects.....3,026

## RELIGIONS, ACCORDING TO MALTE BRUN.

|                           |             |
|---------------------------|-------------|
| Christians—Catholics..... | 116,000,000 |
| Greek Church.....         | 70,000,000  |
| Protestants.....          | 42,000,000  |
|                           | 228,000,000 |
| Jews.....                 | 4,000,000   |
| Mahomedans.....           | 103,000,000 |
| Brahmins.....             | 60,000,000  |
| Shamans.....              | 50,000,000  |
| Buddhists.....            | 100,000,000 |
| Fetichists.....           | 100,000,000 |

Having taken a general survey of the earth as a whole, in its astronomical and physical relations, the extent of its population and religious divisions, we shall now proceed to view its various subdivisions into empires, kingdoms, states, cities, &c.



# AMERICA.

THIS great double continent forms one of the grand divisions of the world, and surpasses all others in magnitude, with the exception of Asia, to which, however, it is but little inferior. It stretches, from north to south, a distance of 10,000 miles. Where broadest, North America is not less than 3,500 miles, and South America 3,200. It is very irregularly shaped; being divided, by the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, into two enormous peninsulas, united by the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama, which in one place is only eighteen miles across. The following estimate of its area is given in the new edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*:

|                                                                             | Sq. Eng. miles. |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
| North America.....                                                          | 7,400,000       |
| South America.....                                                          | 6,500,000       |
| Islands .....                                                               | 150,000         |
| Greenland, and the islands connected with it north of Hudson's Straits..... | 900,000         |
| Total.....                                                                  | 14,950,000      |

This vast continent lies between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, the Arctic and Antarctic Seas. All the distinguishing features of the American continent seem to be formed on the most gigantic scale. The chain of the Andes, which runs the whole length of South America, and is prolonged through North America under different names, is, in point of length, unparalleled in the world, and is far superior, in respect of altitude, to the Alps and every other mountain system with which we are acquainted,—the Himmalaya only excepted. The plains, rivers, bays, lakes, cataracts and forests of America, are of unrivaled extent and grandeur. Her mineral riches are also superior to those of any other continent; and she possesses every variety of climate, from the extreme heat of the torrid zone to the eternal winter of the arctic circle.

There is no rational ground for supposing that the ancients had the slightest idea of the existence of the American continent. Their ignorance of the compass, and the form of their vessels, allowed them to move only at a short distance from land. Their voyages, therefore, although extensive, were always along the coasts of the great continents; nor is there the slightest record of any one having turned his daring keel into the vast abysses of ocean. Some speculative writers would have us believe that America has, from remote antiquity, been a sort of refuge to the nations of the Old World,—to the Trojans, Syrians, Carthaginians, Canaanites, and Jews; and they have endeavored to trace the origin of the natives of this continent to these sources, from some supposed similarity in customs or language; forgetful of the fact that man has, every where, many things in common with his fellows. Recent attempts have also been made to identify the style of Mexican architecture with that of ancient Egypt, but with small success.

The Welsh put in a claim to the discovery of America in 1170 by Madoc, a prince of North Wales; but the probability is, that that respectable navigator reached some part of Spain. The claim of discovery by the Northmen has been more generally received, and the Scandinavian writers have supported it as a point of national honor. One of the voyages, however, to the new country, which they called Vinland, was stated to have been performed in twenty-four hours! Vinland was, probably, the southern part of Greenland. Other futile attempts have been made to fix the discovery of America at a period anterior to the time of Columbus.

Perhaps no individual ever stood so much alone as this navigator, in making a discovery that changed the face of the world. He conceived the design, and singly achieved it. Yet, like every other great revolution, it was doubtless prepared by previous circumstances. The invention of the compass, and improved celestial observations, rendered it no longer impossible to steer through an unknown ocean. On the morning of the 12th of October, 1492, the natives of the Old and the New World found themselves, for the first time, in sight of each other!

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## NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA.

THE COASTS OF NORTH AMERICA are more indented with immense gulfs and arms of the sea than any other division of the globe. One of the principal of these, in the north-east part of the continent, consists of what Balbi has not unaptly termed the Sea of the Esquimaux, from its coasts being everywhere occupied by tribes belonging to this peculiar race: it consists of two great divisions, Davis' Straits and Baffin's Bay, separating Greenland from the main land, and Hudson's Bay, lying more to the south and west, but connected with the former by numerous channels, some of which have been only recently discovered. The navigation of these seas and inlets, even in the most favorable seasons, is extremely difficult, from their being constantly encumbered with ice; and it is only during a short period of the year that it can be attempted. The next great inlet of the sea is the Gulf of St. Lawrence, so called from the great river of the same name which falls into its south-west extremity. Passing over the numerous inlets and noble bays on the coast of the United States, we come to the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. This vast Mediterranean is separated from the Atlantic by the Peninsula of Florida and the islands of the West Indies. The latter are, as it were, a continuation of Florida, and are, it is probable, the only remaining points of what was once a broad belt of land, which has been broken to pieces and partly submerged in some of those tremendous convulsions to which the earth has been subject.\* But however this may be, this great inland sea is divided into two portions by the Peninsula of Yucatan, and Cape San Antonia, at the western extremity of the Island of Cuba, which approach within a comparatively short

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\* McCulloch's Geo. Dict.



distance of each other; that to the north being called the Gulf of Mexico, and that to the south the Caribbean Sea. The Gulf of California, separating the peninsula of that name from the main land, is the most important inlet of the sea on the west coast of North America.

SOUTH AMERICA bears a striking resemblance in the form of its COASTS to Africa. It is much more compact than North America, and comparatively little indented by arms of the sea. The great rivers, Amazon, La Plata, Orinoco, may, however, be looked upon as a species of inland seas; and are, in some respects, more serviceable than the latter. The west coast of America, from the proximity of the Andes, has but few gulfs, and is, in a great part, almost destitute of harbors. The southern extremity of South America, or the country of Terra del Fuego, is properly an archipelago, being separated from the continent by the winding strait of Magellan.

MOUNTAINS.—Humboldt has shown that all the high elevations of the New World belong to that great chain which, under different denominations, extends from one of its extremities to the other, along its western coast, over a space of no less than 10,000 miles! The American mountains may, however, be divided into EIGHT SYSTEMS, or principal groups, three of which belong to North, and three to South America; and one each to the West Indian and Arctic archipelagoes.

1st. Of these systems, that of the ANDES, or PERUVIAN SYSTEM, is by far the most gigantic. This vast chain of mountains commences at Cape Horn, in about the 56th deg. of south latitude, and following pretty closely the line of the west coast of the continent, to which it forms, as it were, a huge bulwark, stretches north to the bay of Panama, in about the 9th deg. of north latitude. But at Popayan, in about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  deg. north latitude, the chain is divided into three great ridges, of which the most westerly takes the direction above mentioned. The name *Cordillera*, sometimes given to the entire chain, belongs properly only to the highest ridge. In parts the chain consists only of one ridge, and in others of two or three, enclosing Alpine valleys of vast height, and sometimes of great extent. It has, next to the Himalaya chain, the highest summits known to exist; and its mean elevation may be taken at from 10,000 to 12,000 feet. Chimborazo, near Quito, 21,400 feet above the level of the sea, was formerly supposed to be the highest summit of the Andes, but the researches of Mr. Pentland have shown that it is far surpassed in altitude by Zorata and Ilimani, near lake Titicaca, which respectively rise to the prodigious elevation of 25,250 feet (nearly 10,000 feet higher than Mont Blanc) and 24,000 feet.

2d. The SYSTEM OF LA PARIME, or Guyana, embraces the mountains scattered over the immense island formed by the Orinoco, Cassiquari, Rio Negro, and Amazon. It consists of an irregular group of mountains, separated from each other by plains, savannas, and immense forests. The Sierra de Parime may be regarded as its principal chain. The peak of Duida, 8,312 feet in height, is the culminating point of the chain and of the whole system.

3d. The BRAZILIAN SYSTEM, embracing the mountains that lie between Amazon, Paraguay, and Rio de la Plata. The Sierra de Espinhazo is its

most elevated chain. It traverses, under different denominations, the provinces of Bahia, Minas-Geraës, Rio de Janeiro, San Paulo, and the northern extremity of the province of San Pedro. Its culminating points are Itambe and the Sierra da Piedade, nearly 6,000 feet high, in the province of Minas-Geraës.

4th. In North America, the principal mountain system is that of the MEXICAN ALPS and ROCKY MOUNTAINS, which may be regarded as a continuation of the Andes. In Mexico, it is divided into three distinct ridges; within which, between the parallels of 19 deg. and 24 deg. north latitude, are immense plateaus, elevated to the height of between 6,000 and 9,000 feet. The central cordillera of Mexico stretches from the 25th to the 38th deg. of latitude, separating the waters of the Rio del Norte, flowing south-east, from those of the Colorado, flowing south-west. The highest peaks in the ridge in Mexico, are the volcanoes of Pocatepetl, 17,060 feet, and Orosaba, 16,365 feet. From about the 38th deg. the ridge, which then begins to be called the Rocky Mountains, stretches north 28 deg. west, till it terminates near the mouth of the Mackenzie River, on the Arctic Sea, in about the 69th deg. of latitude, and 138th deg. of west longitude. Some peaks in this chain, between 52° and 53°, are said to be nearly 16,000 feet above the level of the sea; and others, between 37° and 39°, have been ascertained to be from 10,000 to 12,000 feet in height. We have no accurate information respecting the height of the passes of the Rocky Mountains, nor of the altitude of their base above the sea; but on their east side is a very extensive tract, dry, sandy, and almost a desert.

5th. Parallel to the Rocky Mountains, and at no great distance from the sea, a chain of mountains runs north from the peninsula of California, till it is lost in Russian America. This chain, which has been called by Humboldt the CALIFORNIAN MARITIME ALPS, increases in altitude as it gets farther north. Mount Hood, near the 45th deg., on the south side of the Columbia or Oregon River, is said to be about 16,000 feet high; and Mount St. Helen's, about a degree farther north, on the north side of the Columbia, has an elevation of 14,000 feet. Mount Fairweather, in the 59th deg., is also 14,000 feet high, and Mount St. Elias, the loftiest in the chain, attains to an elevation of about 17,000 feet. The last two are volcanoes. Between the Rocky Mountains and the Maritime Alps is an extensive prairie tract, 700 miles in length, by from 100 to 200 miles in breadth. The Rocky Mountains and the Maritime Alps are connected by a ridge in about the 42d deg. of latitude, dividing the waters which now flow north to the Columbia from those which flow south to the Colorado.

6th. The mountains east of the Mississippi do not at all approach the Rocky Mountains in magnitude. They are included in what is called the ALLEGHANY OR APPALACHIAN SYSTEM, extending in a north-eastern by northern direction from Alabama, on the northern confines of Georgia, to the banks of the St. Lawrence, being about 1,200 miles in length, with a mean breadth of 100 miles. The White Mountains of New Hampshire, 7,300 feet above the level of the sea, are the highest in this range, which is crossed by the tidal waters of the Hudson River. The immense valley of the Mississippi lies between the Rocky and the Alleghany chains.

7th. Balbi proposes to embrace, under the denomination of ARCTIC



SYSTEM, all the mountains that are already, or that may hereafter be, discovered within the Arctic archipelago. The culminating points of that system, in so far as they are at present known, are the Corn du Cerf, in Greenland, the height of which has been much exaggerated, but which is probably above 8,000 feet, and the Aeraefi Tackull, in Iceland, 6,649 feet.

8th. The SYSTEM OF THE ANTILLES embraces the mountains in the archipelago of that name. Its culminating points are, the Anton-Sepo, in Hayti, nearly 9,000 feet in height; and the Sierra de Cobre, in Cuba, the most elevated summits of which attain about the same height.

PLATEAUS.—America has a great variety of plateaus, some remarkable for their prodigious elevation, and others for their immense extent. Under the former are included the plateau of Titicaca, divided between Bolivia and Peru, comprising an area of about 18,000 square miles, with a mean elevation of above 13,000 feet. The populous and well-cultivated plateau of Quito is elevated about 9,600 feet; and the extensive plateau or tableland of Anahuac, in Mexico, from 6,000 to 9,000 feet.

VOLCANOES.—America has a great number of volcanoes, and some of the most elevated volcanic mountains in the world. The State of Equador and the department of Cauca in New Grenada, the States of Nicaragua, San Salvador, and Guatemala in Central America, Chili, Russian America, and Iceland in Danish America, contain a great number of volcanoes. The most remarkable volcanic mountains are, Cotopaxi, Sanguay, and Pichincha, in the Columbian State of Equador; Pasto, Sotara, and Purace, in that of Cauca; Guagua-Plitina, or the volcano of Arequipa, and Sehamá, in Peru; the volcanoes of Copiapo, Chilan, Antoco, and Peteroa, in Chili; those of Socomusco, Guatemala, or Fuego, Agua, Pacaya, San Salvador, Granada, and Telica, near St. Leon, of Nicaragua, in Central America; Popocatepetl, or the volcano of Puebla, Citlatepetl, or the volcano of Orizaba, the volcano of Colima, and that of Xorullo, in the Mexican confederation; St. Elias and Fairweather, in the Californian Alps; the two volcanoes of the peninsula of Alashka, and those of the Aleutian islands; with Hekla, and others in Iceland.

PLAINS.—In no other part of the world are the plains so vast. The immense space from the outlet of the Mackenzie river to the Delta of the Mississippi, and between the central chain of the Mexican system and Rocky Mountains, and the Alleghany, forms the largest plain, not of America only, but of the world; it embraces the basins of the Mississippi, the St. Lawrence, Churchill or Nelson, almost the whole basin of the Missouri, nearly the whole basins of the Suskatchewan and Mackenzie River, and the entire basin of the Coppermine River. Four-fifths of that portion of this vast plain, which lies beyond the 50th deg. of latitude, is a bleak and barren waste overspread with innumerable lakes, and bearing a striking resemblance to northern Asia; but its more southerly portion, or that lying west of the Alleghany chain, and north from the Gulf of Mexico, differs widely in character from the other, being well wooded and fertile on the east side, bare but not infertile in the middle, and becoming almost a desert in the extreme west. The second great plain of the New Continent is that of the Amazon: it embraces the whole central part of South America,

comprising more than half Brazil, with south-west Columbia, the eastern part of the republic of Peru, and the northern part of Bolivia; its limits are nearly identical with those of the middle and lower parts of the immense basin of the Amazon and Tocantin. The plain of the Rio de la Plata extends between the Andes and their principal branches, and the mountains of Brazil, to the Atlantic ocean and the straits of Magellan. It embraces the south-west part of Brazil, Paraguay, the country of the Chiquitos, Chaco, with the greater part of the confederation of the Rio de la Plata, the State of Uruguay, and Patagonia. A large portion of it is known by the name of the *Pampas* of Buenos Ayres, or Rio de la Plata. The plain of the Orinoco, embracing the Llanos of New Granada and Venezuela, extends from Caqueta to the mouth of the Orinoco, along the Guaviare, Meta, and lower Oronoco. In some of the flat parts of America large tracts of territory are met with, which, in respect of aridity of soil, and of the sand by which they are covered, may be compared to the deserts of Asia and Africa. The most remarkable and most extensive of these tracts, are the deserts of Pernambuco, occupying a great part of the north-east plateau of Brazil; the desert of Atacama, extending, with some interruptions, along the coast of the Pacific from Tarapaca, in Peru, to Copiapo, in Chili; and the desert of Nuttall, at the east foot of the Rocky Mountains, between the upper Arkansas and Paduka, forming part of the central plain of North America.

THE RIVERS OF AMERICA are on a much larger scale than those of any other portion of the globe, affording facilities of internal communication of vast importance, and quite unequalled anywhere else. The principal are the Amazon, Mississippi, Plata, St. Lawrence, and Orinoco. The *Amazon* flows east through the broadest part of South America, having its *embouchure* under the equator. Its entire course is estimated at about 4,700 miles, and it has several large tributaries. Uninterrupted by either rocks or shallows, it is navigable for vessels of considerable burden to the east foot of the Andes, a distance, in a direct line, of above 2,000 miles from the sea; and though civilization has as yet made little or no progress in the vast and fertile regions through which it flows, there can be no doubt that it is destined to become as it were a great highway for many powerful nations; and to have its banks thickly set with populous towns and emporiums.

The *Mississippi* drains one of the largest and finest basins in the world. It has its sources in the brooks which form the small lake Itaska, about 47° 10' north latitude, on a high table-land, 1,500 feet above the level of the sea, and 3,200 miles from the mouth of the river, following the windings of the stream, but only 1,250 in a straight line. Rising in a region of swamps and wild rice lakes, it flows at first through low prairies, and then in a broken course through forests of elm, maple, birch, oak, and ash, till, at the Falls of St. Anthony, 1,100 miles from its source, it tumbles over a limestone ridge, with a fall of 17 feet. The river is here 600 yards wide. Below this point it is bounded by limestone bluffs, from 100 to 400 feet high, and first begins to exhibit islands, drift-wood and sand-bars. Its current is slightly broken by the Rock River and Desmoines Rapids, which, however, present no very considerable interruption to navigation; and 850 miles below the Falls of St. Anthony, it receives from the west the stream



of the Missouri. Between the mouth of the Missouri and the sea, a distance of 1,220 miles, it receives its principal tributaries;—the Ohio from the east, and the Arkansas and Red River from the west, and immediately below the mouth of the latter, it gives off, in times of flood, a portion of its surplus waters to the Atchafalaya. Below the Atchafalaya it discharges a portion of its waters by the Lafourche and the Iberville; but the greater part of its contents flows on in the main channel, which passes through a flat tract, and reaches the Gulf of Mexico at the end of a long projecting tongue of mud, formed by the deposits of the current. Near the sea it divides into several channels, here called passes, with bars at their mouths, on which are from 12 to 14 feet of water. Before the introduction of steam vessels, the river was navigated by keel-boats, which, in going upward, were rowed along the eddies of the stream, or drawn by ropes along the shore; and by this tedious process more than three months were consumed in ascending from New Orleans to the Falls of the Ohio; a passage which is now made in five or six days. The first steamboat was introduced in 1811; there are now upwards of 1,000 on the river. The boldest flights of imagination can hardly figure what the Mississippi will be, when the rich and fruitful countries on its banks, and those of its affluents, are all fully peopled, and making use of its waters to send abroad their surplus products, and to import those of other countries and climates.

The *Missouri*, is navigable to the foot of the great falls, and steamboats have gone up the stream 2,200 miles from its junction with the Mississippi. It rises in the Rocky Mountains, and some of its sources are within a mile of those of the Columbia. The falls in several parts of this river are only inferior to those of Niagara. In a course of 17 miles it has a descent of 360 feet, and in that space, besides the Great Falls, of 90 feet perpendicular and 300 yards wide, and a fine fall of 50 feet, there are several others of from 12 to 20 feet. The Missouri thence flows through vast prairies, and soon after receiving the Yellow Stone, a large, navigable stream, takes a south and south-east course to the Mississippi.

The *Ohio* is, next to the Missouri, the most important of the tributaries of the Mississippi. This river is formed by the union of the Alleghany, 350 miles long, and the Monongahela, 300 miles, at Pittsburg, from which place to the Mississippi it has a course of 950 miles, receiving, in its progress, numerous navigable streams from both sides; from the north, the Muskingum, the Big Beaver, Scioto, Miami and Wabash; and from the south, the Kanhawa, Big Sandy, Kentucky, Greene, Cumberland and Tennessee. The whole region drained by this fine river includes an area of 200,000 square miles, rich in the most useful natural productions, and enjoying a mild and healthful climate. The breadth of the stream varies from 400 to 1,400 yards, and the annual range between mean water and flood is more than 50 feet. The floods occur in December and on the melting of the snow in spring. The navigation is usually impeded by ice in the winter, and, in the upper part of the river, by drouth in summer; but during the other seasons the stream is covered with steamers and river craft, carrying on an active trade.

The *Arkansas* exceeds the Ohio in size, but its course is generally through an almost desert country, which diminishes its importance. The navigation is insecure, and in summer, in many parts, the stream is dried

up. Steamboats ply only from its mouth to Fort Gibson, 420 miles, while its whole length is estimated to be 2,500 miles.

The *Red River* rises in the Mexican Cordillera, and hence pursues a course south and east to the Mississippi, forming in part the north boundary of the State of Texas. The obstructions which formerly impeded navigation have been partly removed; steamboats ply on its bosom the whole length of its navigable course.

The *Illinois* is formed in the north part of the State of the same name, by the junction of the Kankakee from Indiana and the Des-Plaines from Wisconsin, from which it flows 200 miles to the Mississippi. It is navigable to the Falls of Ottawa. In some places the river expands to such a width as to have the appearance of a lake; and one expanse of this kind, 20 miles long, has received the name of Lake Peoria. The Kankakee rises within two miles of the St. Joseph, which falls into Lake Michigan, and in the wet season boats may pass from one to the other.

The *Plata*, which runs south, with a slight inclination to the east, is the grand channel of communication to a very large portion of South America. Its course may be estimated at about 2,500 miles; and its basin is inferior only to that of the Amazon or the Mississippi.

The *St. Lawrence*, with its connected lakes, or rather great inland seas, is the grand outlet of the largest fresh water system in the world. Including the lakes, its course exceeds 2,000 miles. It is remarkable for the equality of its current, which is nearly uniform throughout the year.

The *Orinoco* has a course of about 1,800 miles, and carries to the sea an immense body of water. There is a water communication between one of its affluents, the Cassiquiare, and the Rio Negro, an affluent of the Amazon.

Owing to the circumstance of the Andes, and their prolongation in North America, being generally within a comparatively short distance of the western coast, there is not, in most parts, room in the intervening space for the formation of any great river. Hence, notwithstanding the prodigious length of the western coast, it only receives two large rivers, and these not of the first class; the *Rio Colorado*, falling into the bottom of the Gulf of California, and the *Columbia* or *Oregon*. Their course may be estimated at about 1,100 miles each.

The *Mackenzie* is the only great river flowing into the Arctic Sea. It has a north north-west course; it is connected by a series of lakes and tributary streams with Lake Superior, and consequently with the St. Lawrence.

LAKES.—No part of the world has so many lakes as North America, especially that portion between 42° and 67° of latitude, which might be justly called the lake region. It presents not only the greatest masses of fresh water on the surface of the globe, but so many smaller lakes and morasses, that their enumeration is almost impossible. These lakes form a most important feature in the physical geography of the New World. In the rainy season several of them overflow their banks; and temporary communications are then established between rivers whose embouchures are frequently at immense distances from each other. The great lakes of



North America are, Lake Superior, Michigan, Huron, St. Clair, Erie, and Ontario. These, which are all connected together, discharge their superfluous waters by the St. Lawrence, and form the vast reservoir of fresh water, sometimes called the Sea of Canada.

*Lake Superior* has a length of 420 miles, and an extreme breadth of 165 miles; its circuit is about 1,750, and its area has been estimated at 32,000 square miles. Its surface is 596 feet above the level of the sea; but as its depth varies from 500 to 900 feet, and is even supposed to be in some places, 1,200 feet; its bottom lies far below the level of the ocean. The basin which is drained by this great lake is estimated at 100,000 square miles, and has 220 rivers and streamlets to convey the waters deposited within it. The water is very pure and cold; the bottom consists of adhesive clay. The shore on the north consists of lofty rocks, from 300 to 1,500 feet high, and is lined with numerous islands; the southern shore is chiefly low and sandy, interrupted here and there by limestone rocks, and is wholly destitute of bays or any other shelter.

*Lake Huron* receives the waters of Lake Superior through the river St. Mary's, which is about 30 miles in length, with falls of 30 feet,  $22\frac{1}{2}$  of which occur at the Sault or Rapids of St. Mary's, extending over a space of two miles. Greatest length 250, and breadth 220 miles; its circuit is 1,200 miles, and its area about 20,000 square miles. The surface of this lake is 578 feet above the level of the sea, and its average depth is 1,000 feet. The shores are much similar to those of Lake Superior; high and rocky on the north, and low and swampy on the south. On the west side of the lake is a large inlet called Saginaw Bay.

*Lake Michigan* lies in the same level with Huron, and indeed is properly a part of it, the two being connected by the Straits of Michilimackinac, which is four miles wide at the narrowest part. Length 300, and breadth from 80 to 90 miles; area 22,000 square miles, and the greatest depth 900 feet. Green Bay, on its west side, is nearly detached from the lake by a long, narrow peninsula, and several islands.

*Lake Erie* is 265 miles long and 63 in breadth in the middle. Its surface is 565 feet above the level of the sea, and has an area of 9,600 square miles. The shores are low, but in a few places interrupted by rocky cliffs: towards the west there are extensive marshes on both sides. The want of sheltered bays has rendered it necessary to resort to pier harbors; the mouths of the rivers are also obstructed by sand-bars.

The river Niagara, 33 miles in length, forms the outlet of Lake Erie, and has a descent of 334 feet to Lake Ontario. Of this, 165 feet form one perpendicular fall, and 51 feet the descent of the rapids in the half mile immediately above the falls. Below the falls, the Niagara flows through a deep, rock-bound chasm, the sides of which are formed by mural precipices, nearly 300 feet high, as far as Queenstown, where the ground sinks down almost to the level of the river. The great fall, 20 miles from Lake Erie, is divided by Goat Island into two portions, one of which, named the Horse Shoe Falls, from its semi-circular form, has a lineal extent of 600 yards on the Canadian side; the other, an extent of 300 yards on the American side. For grandeur and sublimity the FALLS OF NIAGARA are unequaled and unsurpassed by any other natural scene in the world. President

Dwight estimated the quantity of water precipitated over the falls at 11,524,375 tons an hour; Darby at 1,672,704,000 cubic feet per hour; and Pickens at 113,510,000 gallons, or 18,524,000 cubic feet a minute.

*Lake Ontario* is about 200 miles in length; its greatest breadth is 60; its circuit 470; its area 6,300 square miles; its surface 232 feet above the level of the sea, and its depth from 300 to 600 feet. The shores are generally low, but between Toronto and the Bay of Quinte they are higher.

The next in size and importance are Lakes Winnipeg, Athabasco, Great Slave Lake, and Great Bear Lake, stretching north north-west from Lake Superior to near the mouth of the Mackenzie River, and forming as it were a continuation of the Canadian lakes. There are some considerable lakes in the Mexican States; and the comparatively small lakes of Tezeaco, Xochimilco, &c., in the valleys of Mexico, are remarkable for their elevated situation, their vicinity to the capital, and the superb works undertaken to prevent the damage caused by their frequent overflowing. The Lake Nicaragua, in Central America, is remarkable for its size, the beauty of its scenery, its volcanoes, and from its forming the basis of the works projected for uniting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The limited size of the principal lakes of South America, strikingly contrasts with the dimensions of those of North America. The Lake of Titicaca, the largest and most celebrated of the South American lakes, is situated near the north-west frontier of Bolivia, or Upper Peru, in an Alpine valley surrounded by ridges of the Andes. It covers an area of above 4,000 square miles, and is elevated 12,795 feet above the level of the sea! Manco Capac made his first appearance on the banks of this lake. The basins of the Rio Colorado, or Mendoza, and Rio Negro, present several very extensive lakes; but these are really rather vast morasses, than lakes properly so called.

**ISLANDS.**—A multitude of islands belong to America. We shall briefly notice the principal, in the order of the seas in which they are situated. In the Atlantic Ocean are, the archipelago of St. Lawrence, or of Newfoundland, at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The great Columbian archipelago, or Antilles, commonly called the West Indies, comprises a great number of islands and secondary groups, lying between the peninsula of Florida and the delta of the Orinoco. The Lucayos, or Bahama Islands, a vast secondary group, are situated to the north of Cuba. Towards the southern extremity of the New Continent, are the Falkland, or Malouine Islands, which have no fixed inhabitants; in the southern ocean is the archipelago of Magellan and Terra del Fuego, the most southerly inhabited part of the world.

The Antarctic archipelago, or Antarctic lands, under which denomination we include all the islands situated beyond 56° south latitude, next claim attention. The greater part of these islands have been recently discovered; they are all uninhabited, are mostly covered with ice, and are important only to whale and seal fishers. In Behring's Sea are the group of Pribylof and Nounivok, belonging to Russia. The Arctic Ocean presents a vast number of islands, the majority of which, previously to a late voyage of discovery, were regarded as parts of the American continent.

The **CLIMATE** of America is nearly as celebrated for the predominance of cold, as that of Africa for the predominance of heat. With the excep-



tion of the limited space along its western shore, between the Andes in the south, and the maritime Alps in the north, the temperature of the New World, in the same latitude, is everywhere inferior to that of the Old. Countries which, from their geographical position, we should suppose to be mild and temperate, are exposed to long and severe winters, during which they are wholly covered with snow; and in point of fact, the entire continent of North America above the 50th deg. of latitude is all but uninhabitable. Even in the 45th parallel, on the north side of the Canadian lakes, frost is continuous for more than six months. Occasional frosts occur as low down the Atlantic coast as the confines of Florida, near the 30th deg. of latitude, in the parallel of Morocco, Cairo, and Suez. This predominance of cold is no doubt ascribable to a great variety of causes; among the most prominent of which may be placed the extraordinary elevation of the soil. Not only is the continent traversed from one extremity to the other by immense chains of mountains covered with perpetual snow, but in many parts, as in Mexico and Columbia, very extensive plains are found at an elevation of from 6,000 to 10,000 feet above the level of the sea! Thus the plain of Quito, immediately under the equator, has an elevation of above 9,600 feet, and its mean temperature is said not to exceed 53° Fahr. In some parts, where the plateaus rise rapidly, there is often, within a few leagues, an extraordinary change of temperature. At Vera Cruz and Guayaquil, for example, on the borders of the plains of Mexico and Quito, and nearly on a level with the sea, the heat is often quite oppressive. These different climates have different vegetable productions. "Hence the traveler journeying down the deep descent of one of these magnificent ravines (leading from the plateau of Mexico), through forests of birches, oaks, and pines, finds himself suddenly on the level shores of the Rio Alvarado, surrounded by palms, and has an opportunity of seeing the animal products of the north and south, of the Alpine regions and tropics, nay of the eastern and western hemispheres, mingled together. Wolves of northern aspect dwelling in the vicinity of monkeys; humming-birds returning periodically from the borders of the frozen zone, with the northern bunting and soft-feathered titmice, to nestle near parrots; and the common European whistling-ducks and teal, swimming in lakes which swarm with syrens and Brazilian parras and boatbills."\*

Another cause of the inferior temperature of the New World may be partly ascribed to the great indentation of the sea between North and South America, and the absence of those extensive sandy deserts in the tropical regions, which, by reflecting the rays of the sun, render Africa so uncommonly heated. The place of these is supplied by dense forests, and traversed by the largest rivers of the world, which powerfully diminish the influence of the solar beams. A strong and abundant vegetation is, in fact, the distinguishing characteristic of North as well as South America, and to this fact may be attributed much of the difference which distinguishes the Old from the New World.

And with respect to North America, we may add, that while but a small portion of it is within the torrid zone, it reaches far within the Arctic circle, where it also attains to a great breadth. The north-west wind prevails in the winter. This wind, sweeping over a desolate country, over-

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\* Richardson's Zoology of North America.

spread with marshes, forests, frozen lakes, and mountains buried under eternal snow, contracts an intense degree of cold, and in its progress southward, passing over a wilderness, where the forests shade the earth from the sun, its original character is in no respect changed. It slowly yields to the dominion of latitude, and retains its boreal character long after it has penetrated into the natural regions of heat. Throughout North America the north wind is accordingly felt to be keen and piercing. It increases the rigor of the seasons, and extends the influence of winter far into those latitudes, which, in the other hemisphere, are blessed with perpetual spring.

The countries lying within the tropics are exposed to the inroads of the northern blasts; and the great heats felt at Vera Cruz and other seaboard cities, are often suddenly reduced by strata of cold air brought by the north winds from the polar regions. These winds blow from October to March, frequently bursting forth in tremendous hurricanes—"northerners," and cooling the air to such a degree, that at Vera Cruz the thermometer very frequently falls to 60° Fahr. In the basin of Mexico, the temperature has sometimes marked the freezing point, and thin ice has been formed on stagnant pools.

To the prevalence of these north winds, therefore, combined with the extraordinary elevation of the surface and the yet uncultivated state of the country, overspread with vast forests, the inferior temperature of North America seems ascribable. But with this great inconvenience, the climate of the continent is healthy, and the rate of mortality not greater, in the more elevated regions, than that of the Old World, and in some of the middle districts longevity is a distinguishing feature in its vital statistics.

In South America nearly the same causes operate. The country is even more desolate: the climate is more inclined to moisture, and liable, beyond the 40th parallel, to dreadful tempests; while immense mountain ranges, rising far above the limit of perpetual snow, aid these effects, and greatly increase the rigor of the seasons. To these causes may be added the form of the American continent, which, being greatly contracted in breadth as it approaches the south, is, in consequence, exposed on every side, except towards the north, to the surrounding oceanic winds. To the south of Cape Horn is the great Antarctic Ocean, where cold prevails even to a much greater degree than in the north, so that the winds coming from those inhospitable seas bring to the American continent all the unmitigated rigor of the polar regions. The Andes and maritime Alps protect the strip of territory between them and the Pacific Ocean from the freezing influence of the north-west wind; and to this its greater mildness is partly, at least, if not wholly, owing.

**VEGETATION.**—Stretching, as America does, from the eternal snows of the Arctic to those of the Antarctic circle, and possessing soils of every elevation and quality, her vegetable products are necessarily of the most diversified description. Owing to the prevalent humidity and coolness of the climate, and the richness of the soil, her forests and pastures are unrivalled for extent, luxuriance, and magnificence. The forests consist generally of very heavy timber, including many species of pines and larches unknown in Europe, with an endless variety of oaks, maples, cypresses, tulip trees, mahogany trees, logwood, Brazil-wood, &c., &c. The Old





AMERICAN ZOOLOGY — BISON.





NATURAL HISTORY—PRAIRIE DOGS—BURROWING OWLS.



World is indebted to the New for some of its most useful and widely-diffused vegetable productions. Potatoes, though probably not introduced into Europe for more than a century after the discovery of America, already form a most important part of the food of most European nations; and tobacco, though it also be of American origin, has been diffused from one extremity of the Old World to the other, and is, perhaps, the most universally esteemed of all luxuries. Maize, or Indian corn, millet, cocoa, vanilla, pimento, copaiba, cinchona or bark, so important in medicine, jalap, sassafras, nux vomica, &c., are also American. The *Cactus cochiniifer*, which furnishes the cochineal, is also peculiar to America. On the other hand, America is indebted to the Old World for a great variety of cereal grasses, trees, and fruits. At the head of the former may be placed wheat, barley, oats, and rice, all of which succeeded admirably well in large portions of America. It seems pretty well established that the sugar-cane is indigenous to some of the West Indian islands; but it is abundantly certain, not merely that the art of making sugar, but that the cane, now most generally cultivated in the islands and in continental America, was brought to them either from the East Indies or from Madeira. America is also indebted to the Old World for the coffee plant, now one of her staple products; and for oranges, lemons, peaches, and most descriptions of fruit trees. American apples, though now very superior to any produced in that country, are derived from plants brought from England. The vine is raised in America, and an excellent quality of wine manufactured from a native grape. The tea-plant has been tried in Brazil; but, owing to the dearness of labor, there is no chance of its being profitably cultivated there, or anywhere else in America.

The ZOOLOGY of America differs in many important respects from that of the Old World. With few exceptions, she is singularly ill provided with the useful animals. Neither the horse, ox, sheep, nor hog, were found in America on her discovery by Columbus; and the want of them must, no doubt, have been a considerable obstacle to the advancement of the natives in the career of civilization. The elephant and the camel are also unknown in America; but she was not entirely destitute of useful animals. In Peru they had the llama, guanaco, paco, and vicunna—animals that bear a considerable resemblance to each other, if they be not of the same species. The first has a considerable analogy to the camel, though it is neither so large nor strong, and wants the hump. It was, and still is, employed to carry loads, and, being docile and sure-footed, makes its way over the most dangerous paths. Its pace is slow, seldom exceeding twelve or fifteen miles a day, and it usually carries about eighty pounds. Its wool, or, rather, hair, which is generally, but not always, white, is spun and made into articles of clothing. The guanacos and pacos are not so serviceable as beasts of burden as the llamas, and are comparatively little used. The vicunna, the smallest of them all, inhabits the least accessible parts of the Andes; it is chiefly prized on account of its wool, which is of a very superior quality. The flesh of these animals, though dry and coarse, is used as food. They are almost the only animals that the native inhabitants of America had been able to subdue, and to render subservient to their purposes. The bison, or American ox, (*Bos Americanus*), the largest native quadruped of the New World, is principally found on the

prairie lands of the Rocky Mountains, in North America. It is rarely, if ever, seen to the south of the Mississippi; and it is doubtful whether it was ever found on the Atlantic coast. The *Bos moschatus*, or musk ox, is found only in the most northern parts of America to the west of Hudson's Bay, from 66° to 73° north latitude. Its horns, which cover all the forehead, are often of great weight. The Rocky Mountain goat, remarkable for the fineness of its wool, inhabits the Rocky Mountains from Mexico to the extremity of the range. Several species of deer are found both in North and South America. The rein-deer is the most northern ruminating animal, being found in Greenland and the remotest of the Arctic islands. On the western coast it descends as low as the Columbia River.

America possesses several peculiar species of the genus *Canis*, or dog. The physiognomy of the American wolf, when contrasted with that of its European namesake, is very distinct. There is a great variety of foxes. The fur of the *Canis lagopus*, or arctic fox, and of some other varieties of the same genus, is of considerable value. The best known variety of the American dog is the *Canis familiaris*, found in Newfoundland. This animal is now very common, and is deservedly a great favorite. It is strong and active, has long, fine glossy hair, a curved bushy tail, and webbed toes, by means of which it swims admirably well. The color of the back and sides is generally black, with a white belly and legs, and frequently a white spot at the tip of the tail. It is naturally fitted, by its thick covering of hair, for a cold climate, and is more active and in better health in winter than in summer.

The beaver (*Castor*) is more abundant, perhaps, in the north-west parts of North America than in any other parts of the world. But the great demand for, and high price of its fur, has led to a great diminution of its numbers, and to its nearly total extirpation in the more accessible parts of the country. The coypou, known in commerce by the name of nutria, and the chinchilla, are found in South America. They yield a highly esteemed fur, and immense quantities of their skins are now exported.

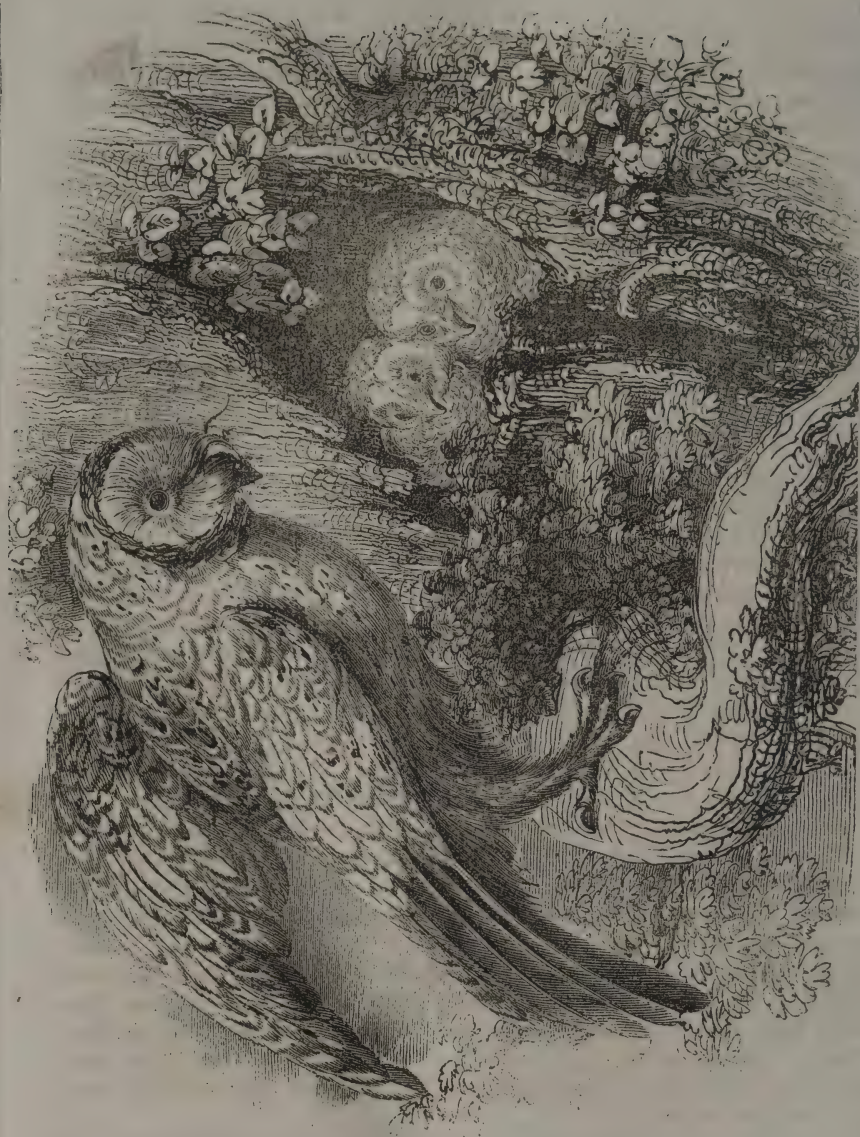
America has but few beasts of prey. The most formidable, the *Felis onca*, or jaguar, is found only in South America. It is larger and stronger than the panther, but is inferior in size and ferocity to the Bengal tiger, with which it is generally compared. The *Felis discolor*, or puma, is found in both South and North America: though denominated the American lion, it is neither so large nor fierce as the jaguar. A number of bears, some of them of the largest and most formidable description, are found in Arctic America: two are peculiar to it.

Tropical America has a great variety of apes, but none of them approach so nearly to the human form as the orang outang, or chimpanzee, and none of them have the ferocity of the baboon. Many, however, have prehensile tails, endowed with so great delicacy of touch that they have been compared to the trunk of the elephant. This fits them admirably for traveling from tree to tree.

The vampyre bat, frequent in South America, is very dangerous. It attacks the larger animals, and even man himself, when asleep; and as its bite is not sufficiently painful to awaken the victim, the bleeding it occasions sometimes proves fatal.

America is infested by an immense number of reptiles. Of these pests the rattlesnake is one of the most common, and also the most dangerous:





WHITE OWL





EAGLE AND EAGLETS.



but there are others little less venomous. The true *boa constrictor* is found of an enormous size in the marshes and swamps of tropical America. Centipedes, sometimes a yard in length, with enormous spiders, scorpions, &c., abound in these regions. According to Humboldt, the white ants and termites are even more destructive here than their congeners in the Old World.

The birds of America are exceedingly numerous. The condor, which inhabits the most inaccessible parts of the Andes, though of less dimensions than was formerly supposed, is the largest and most powerful of all the feathered tribes. There are also a great many eagles, vultures, falcons, and other birds of prey. A species of ostrich, but smaller than the African, inhabits the Pampas; and the woods of both Americas are the resort of vast flocks of wild turkeys, pigeons, &c.

The waters of America are well supplied with fish; and the rivers in the tropical regions produce also enormous lizards and alligators. In the lakes of the Caraccas is found the electric eel.

Nothing, however, is so worthy of remark, in relation to the zoology of America, as the wonderful increase of the horses and cattle brought here from Europe. Had we not been fully aware of all the circumstances in regard to their immigration, it would certainly have been supposed that they were indigenous to America, and that it, in fact, was their native country. They here rove about in immense herds in a state of pristine freedom; and so numerous have they become that the slaughter of oxen, not for the carcass, but merely for the hide, is the principal business of many extensive provinces. In a single year above 800,000 hides have been exported from Brazil only, exclusive of those exported from Buenos Ayres, Montevideo, and other ports! In consequence, too, of the extraordinary increase of horses, the mode of existence of the natives in several parts has been wholly changed; they have become expert horsemen, and pass a considerable part of their time on horseback, approaching in this respect to the Tartars and Arabs of the ancient world. Sheep have not succeeded so well in America as cattle and horses; and their wool, in most parts, is generally of an inferior description.

**MINERALS.**—The mineral riches of America are probably superior to those of any other of the grand divisions of the globe. The discovery of the mines of Mexico and Peru effected an entire revolution in the value of the precious metals; and those regions still continue to be the grand sources whence supplies of gold and silver are derived. The annexed tables will answer the purpose of a general review of the principal mining districts.

#### MINERALOGICAL PRODUCTIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

**GOLD.**—Mexico, (North-western Provinces;) United States, (California, North and South Carolina, and Georgia;) Central America.

**SILVER.**—Mexico, (Central Provinces;) Central America; United States, (in the Lead Districts of Lake Superior, &c.)

**TIN.**—Mexico; United States, (California.)

**MERCURY.**—Mexico.

**COPPER.**—Mexico; United States, (New Jersey, New York, and the region of Lake Superior, &c.)

**LEAD.**—Mexico; United States, (Illinois, Missouri, New York, &c.)

**IRON.**—United States, (New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, South Carolina, New York, Maryland, Ohio, &c.) Mexico; Canada, (mines at St. Maurice, &c.) and Central America.

**COAL.**—Cape Breton; Nova Scotia; United States, (Pennsylvania, &c.)

**SALT.**—United States, (New York, Massachusetts, Kentucky, Illinois, Ohio, Missouri, and California;) Central America, (Honduras, &c.) Mexico, (Oaxaca, &c.) &c.

## MINERALOGICAL PRODUCTIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

DIAMONDS. — Brazil, (Minas-Geraes, &amp;c.)

OTHER PRECIOUS STONES. — Brazil, (Minas-Geraes, &amp;c.); New Grenada, (Cundinamarca, &amp;c.); Chili, and Peru.

GOLD. — New Grenada, (San Juan, Cauca, Choco, &amp;c.); Equador; Peru; Bolivia; Chili, (in the region of the Cordilleras, &amp;c.); Brazil, (Minas-Geraes, Goyas, and Matta-Grasso;) and the Argentine Republic, (region of the Andes, &amp;c.)

SILVER. — Bolivia; Peru; Chili, and Argentine Republic.

TIN. — Peru.

MERCURY. — Peru, (Huancavelica, mines of Santa Barbara.)

COPPER. — Peru and Chili.

IRON. — Brazil, (Minas-Geraes, St. Paul's, &amp;c.); Peru.

COAL. — Peru; Chili, and several other States.

SALT. — Argentine Republic; Brazil, (Rio Grande de Norte, Parsa, &amp;c.); Venezuela; New Grenada; Bolivia; Peru, &amp;c.

SALTPETRE. — Peru, (abundant.)

RACES OF MEN. — The native inhabitants of America differ in physical form, in language, and perhaps in intellectual character, from every other variety of the human race. Probably, however, the general agreement which exists among themselves is even more remarkable than their disagreement from other races. The *Red* men, as the Americans call themselves, in contradistinction to the European and African races (that is, to the *Whites* and *Blacks*, the only two they have any knowledge of), exhibit surprisingly little difference, although extending over  $70^{\circ}$  on the north side, and  $54^{\circ}$  on the south side of the equator. Heat or cold, drouth or moisture, elevation or depression of surface, have certainly no effect in the production even of the small variations occasionally discoverable among them. "The Indians of New Spain," says Humboldt, "bear a close resemblance to those who inhabit Canada, Florida, Peru, and Brazil. Over 1,500,000 square leagues, from Cape Horn to the St. Lawrence and Behring's Straits, we are struck at the first glance with the general resemblance in the features of the inhabitants. We think we perceive them all to be descended from the same stock, notwithstanding the prodigious diversity of their languages. In the portrait drawn by Volney of the Canadian Indians, we recognize the tribes scattered over the savannahs of the Apure and the Carony. The same style of feature exists in both Americas." The general physical form is as follows: Skin dark, having more or less of a red tinge, usually called copper color, but thought to be more correctly characterized by that of cinnamon; hair of the head black, coarse, lank, shining, long, but not very abundant; hair on other parts of the body very deficient. The beard is seldom altogether wanting, but is so uniformly scanty, as often to present the appearance of its being so. Forehead long; eyes deep sunk, small, and black; face broad across the cheeks, which are round and prominent; nose well raised, and round at the apex; mouth large and lips thick; chest high, thighs massy, legs arched, feet large, hands and wrists small. The height is nearly the mean stature of the European race, but the body is usually more squat and thick set. The countenance is hard-favored, and the look stern, yet with a certain sweetness in the expression of the mouth, which is a contrast to the rest of the features. It will appear, from this statement, that the races which the American most nearly resembles, are the Mongul, Malayan, and Indo-Chinese. The features of the face are, however, more amply chiseled than in any of these; the frontal bone is more flattened than in any of them, and the stature is greater than it is, at least, in the Malayan race. Although in the tropical regions of America there are no black men, as in Africa and Asia, nor in the temperate regions any whites, as in Europe, still varieties do exist in an inferior degree, which may be compared to



those which exist among Europeans and among negroes. The most striking of these are found in the short, squat and tallow-colored Esquimaux, about the polar regions of the north, and the tall Patagonians, in the extreme south of the southern continent. The first of these differ in no respect, as far as physical form is concerned, from the people of the same name in Asia and Europe. In point of height, the several Indian nations differ materially even on the same continent; and, upon the whole, it may be remarked, that the American race exhibits a wider difference in stature than any other family of mankind, while this difference, at the same time, would not seem to be productive of any essential variation in either physical or intellectual capacity. In point of color, there is no material difference, except in shade. The probability is, after all, that the number of races of men in America is at least as great as in any other part of the world, but still, throughout the whole, the contour of a distinct family is perceptible, and the same features are alike recognized from the north to the south, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

The intellectual faculties of this great family are decidedly inferior. They are not only averse to the restraints of education, but are incapable of abstract reasoning. Their minds seize on simple truths, but reject all investigation and analysis. Their long proximity to Europeans has caused but little change in their mode of thinking or their manner of life, and their social condition is not far removed from the primitive barbarism in which they existed on the first visits of civilized man. The Indian is truly the man of the woods, and, like the wild animals he lives upon, he is destined to disappear before the advancing tide of civilization, which falls upon him like a blight, because it supplies new food to nourish his vices, while it demands intellectual and moral faculties, in which he is deficient, and renders useless those qualities which predominate in his character. Neither is there any thing in the extinction of these people by natural means which humanity should mourn over. In every state of life man has but a brief span of existence allotted to him. Successive generations fall like the leaves of the forest; and the extinction of a race of men by natural causes, means merely the suspension of those circumstances which enabled it to continue its existence.

POPULATION.—Besides the original inhabitants, vast numbers of Europeans, of all nations, have emigrated to America since its discovery by Columbus, tempted originally, for the most part, by the *auri sacra fames*. It was this same passion, taking it in its most literal and degrading sense, that has made them fill the Antilles, and part also of the continent, with millions of negroes brought from Africa, and reduced, with their descendants, to a state of slavery. But at a later period America furnished an asylum for the victims of political and religious persecution in the Old World; and for these many years she has offered an all but inexhaustible field for the profitable employment of its redundant capital, skill, and labor; and thousands upon thousands, who could hardly contrive to exist on that side of the Atlantic, have attained, if not to opulence, at least to comfort and independence, in America. Hence she has long been, and still continues to be, the promised land of the poor but industrious man; and a city of refuge to all who happen to be discontented with the policy, or who have given offence to the rulers of the Old World.

## ESTIMATE OF THE AREA AND POPULATION OF THE AMERICAN STATES IN 1850:

## GOVERNMENTS OF NORTH AMERICA.

| States.                                  | Form of Government. | Capitals.          | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population. |
|------------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------|
| Danish America, (Greenland, &c.)...      | Province.....       | Rekiavik.....      | 380,000            | 65,000      |
| French Possessions, (St. Pierre, &c.)... | Province.....       | St. Pierre.....    | 18                 | 100         |
| Russian America.....                     | Province.....       | N. Archangel.....  | 394,000            | 6,000       |
| New Britain.....                         | British Province..  | York Factory.....  | 2,000,000          | 162,686     |
| Canada West.....                         | British Province..  | { Toronto, }.....  | 147,000            | 723,087     |
| Canada East.....                         | British Province..  | { }.....           | 209,690            | 768,324     |
| New Brunswick.....                       | British Province..  | Frederickton.....  | 27,700             | 220,000     |
| Nova Scotia, &c.....                     | British Province..  | Halifax.....       | 19,630             | 278,905     |
| Prince Edward's Island.....              | British Province..  | Charlottetown..... | 2,134              | 62,678      |
| Newfoundland.....                        | British Province..  | St. John's.....    | 57,000             | 91,264      |
| United States of America.....            | Republic.....       | Washington.....    | 3,260,073          | 23,644,607  |
| United States of Mexico.....             | Republic.....       | Mexico.....        | 1,100,000          | 7,200,000   |
| Guatemala.....                           | Republic.....       | New Guatemala..... | 28,000             | 935,000     |
| San Salvador.....                        | Republic.....       | San Salvador.....  | 24,000             | 363,000     |
| Nicaragua.....                           | Republic.....       | Leon.....          | 40,000             | 400,000     |
| Costa Rica.....                          | Republic.....       | Cartago.....       | 22,000             | 198,000     |
| Honduras.....                            | Republic.....       | Chiquimala.....    | 81,000             | 308,000     |
| Mosquitia.....                           | Republic.....       | Blewfields.....    | 23,000             | 4,000       |
| Balizo.....                              | British Province..  | Balizo.....        | 62,740             | 3,000       |
| Total.....                               |                     |                    | 7,898,985          | 35,123,661  |

## WEST INDIAN GOVERNMENTS.

| States.                                | Form of Government. | Capitals.          | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population. |
|----------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------|
| Hayti... } San Domingo, {              | Empire.....         | Cape Haytien.....  | 11,000             | 700,000     |
| Dominica, } .....                      | Republic.....       | San Domingo.....   | 18,000             | 200,000     |
| Cuba.....                              | Spanish Province.   | Havana.....        | 43,380             | 1,315,796   |
| Porto Rico.....                        | Spanish Province.   | San Juan.....      | 3,865              | 359,086     |
| Jamaica.....                           | British Province..  | Spanish Town.....  | 5,468              | 360,000     |
| Trinidad.....                          | British Province..  | Puerta d'Espagne.. | 2,400              | 47,000      |
| Tobago.....                            | British Province..  | Scarboro'.....     | 187                | 15,000      |
| Grenada.....                           | British Province..  | St. George's.....  | 155                | 49,000      |
| St. Vincent's, &c.....                 | British Province..  | Kingston.....      | 131                | 28,500      |
| Barbadoes.....                         | British Province..  | Bridgetown.....    | 166                | 115,000     |
| St. Lucia.....                         | British Province..  | Castries.....      | 225                | 16,000      |
| Dominica.....                          | British Province..  | Roseau.....        | 275                | 20,000      |
| Antigua.....                           | British Province..  | St. John's.....    | 168                | 58,980      |
| St. Christopher's and Virgin Islands.. | British Province..  | Basseterre.....    | 373                | 38,000      |
| Bahamas.....                           | British Province..  | Nassau.....        | 4,440              | 20,000      |
| Turk's Island.....                     | British Province..  |                    | 14                 | 700         |
| Bermuda Islands.....                   | British Province..  | Hamilton.....      | 47                 | 14,000      |
| Guadaloupe, &c.....                    | French Province..   | Basseterre.....    | 309                | 135,000     |
| Martinique.....                        | French Province..   | Port Royal.....    | 290                | 119,700     |
| Curacao, &c.....                       | Dutch Province..    | Wilhelmstadt.....  | 375                | 14,000      |
| Santa Cruz, &c.....                    | Danish Province..   | ChristinStadt..... | 200                | 44,000      |
| St. Bartholomew's.....                 | Swedish Province.   | La Carenage.....   | 25                 | 15,000      |
| Total.....                             |                     |                    | 91,398             | 3,680,762   |

## GOVERNMENTS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

| States.                 | Form of Government. | Capitals.           | Area in Sq. Miles. | Population. |
|-------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------|
| Venezuela.....          | Republic.....       | Caraccas.....       | 1,450,000          | 1,000,000   |
| New Granada.....        | Republic.....       | Santa Fe de Bogota  | 380,000            | 1,687,000   |
| Equador.....            | Republic.....       | Quito.....          | 325,000            | 600,000     |
| Bolivia.....            | Republic.....       | Chuquisaca.....     | 318,000            | 1,700,000   |
| Peru.....               | Republic.....       | Lima.....           | 524,000            | 1,373,000   |
| Chili.....              | Republic.....       | Santiago.....       | 144,000            | 1,200,000   |
| Argentine Republic..... | Republic.....       | Buenos Ayres.....   | 726,000            | 675,000     |
| Uruguay.....            | Republic.....       | Montevideo.....     | 120,000            | 140,000     |
| Paraguay.....           | Republic.....       | Acencion.....       | 74,000             | 250,000     |
| Brazil.....             | Empire.....         | Rio de Janeiro..... | 2,300,000          | 7,500,000   |
| British Guiana.....     | Province.....       | Georgetown.....     | 76,000             | 98,500      |
| Dutch Guiana.....       | Province.....       | Paramaribo.....     | 38,500             | 6,500       |
| French Guiana.....      | Province.....       | Cayenne.....        | 21,648             | 15,000      |
| Patagonia.....          | Native Chiefs       |                     | 80,000             | 80,000      |
| Total.....              |                     |                     | 6,577,148          | 16,326,000  |



**HISTORY.**—The history of America, prior to its discovery by Europeans, can be the subject of little more than conjecture. It appeared long a mystery how this continent, separated from the Old World by oceans of such vast breadth, should have been found peopled from one extremity to the other. The difficulty has vanished, however, since the modern discovery, that, at its north-western extremity, it is separated from Asia only by a narrow strait, and connected by chains of islands; and even the imperfect traditions that have been collected seem to confirm that it was in this channel that the tide of migration flowed. It is barely possible, that some vessels may have been driven by stress of weather across the Atlantic; and it has even been supposed that a country, in which the Norwegians from Iceland formed a settlement, was part of America; but, after examining the details upon this last subject, we consider the inference extremely doubtful.

The discovery by Europeans forms the real commencement, for us, of American history. This naval achievement, the most splendid in modern times, was performed not by the power of any of the great nations, but by one high-minded individual, with difficulty collecting the scanty means requisite. In 1492, Christopher Columbus, sailing in search of a shorter passage to the East Indies, landed at San Salvador, one of the Bahamas, and, sailing onwards, discovered the greater islands of Hispaniola and Cuba. His next voyage, in the following year, enabled him to discover others of the West Indian group; and his third, in 1498, brought him in view of the continent of America, at the mouth of the Orinoco. Meantime, in 1497–8, John and Sebastian Cabot, employed by Henry VII. of England, not only discovered Newfoundland, but navigated along a considerable extent of the coast of North America. Cortereal, a Portuguese nobleman, in 1501 discovered the mouth of the St. Lawrence, and sailed along the coast of Labrador, as far, seemingly, as the entrance of Hudson's Bay. In 1500, Alvaraz Cabral, when sailing to India, came unexpectedly in view of the coast of Brazil. Vesputio and Ojeda had by this time explored nearly the entire circuit of the shores of the Gulf of Mexico. Thus, in ten years after Columbus had set foot on American ground, nearly the whole of the vast length of the continent from north to south had been traced by European navigators. In twenty years more, the South Sea had been discovered by Balboa; and the conquests of Cortez and Pizarro had made Europeans acquainted with a large portion of the western coast. In 1519, the grand and first circumnavigation by Magellan ascertained the southern boundaries of the continent; but its northern limit, and the communication on that side between the Atlantic and the Pacific, though a subject of eager interest, with a view to the hoped-for north-west passage, long defied the most strenuous efforts made by Europeans, and particularly by British navigators; and the discovery was reserved for the present age.

The conquest and colonization by Europeans acted most powerfully on the destiny of both worlds, and particularly of the new one. It was attended, in the first instance, with a series of cruelty and iniquity, of which there is, perhaps, no similar example in history. The natives of the West India islands, where the Spaniards first landed, were entirely exterminated, and there remains scarcely a trace of their existence. The people of Mexico and Peru, though their lot was not quite so dreadful, were exposed to remorseless cruelty, and reduced to degrading bondage. Even in North

America, where the settlers were actuated by more just and humane principles, the fierce temper of the natives themselves, with the introduction of pestilential diseases, and of ardent spirits, to which they soon became passionately addicted, has extirpated them almost as completely as a war of extermination. The steps taken for filling up the blank thus occasioned in the population of the New World have been almost as inhuman as those by which it was produced. The unfortunate natives of Africa were in vast numbers purchased, seized, crammed into the holds of slave-ships, and conveyed across the Atlantic; so that the negro population of the New World amounts now to several millions.

The emancipation of the European colonists from the dominion of, and from all dependence upon, the mother country, was a grand event, which gave the world a new aspect. This great movement originated with the British colonies of North America; and, after a protracted war, their independence was recognized by Great Britain in 1783. The states subject to Spain and Portugal had ample grounds of discontent, which fermented in the minds of the people; who, however, inured to the yoke, would have been long, probably, in attempting to shake it off, had not, in 1808, the family of Napoleon usurped the throne of Spain. The colonies, secured by British maritime ascendancy, repelled this claim, and, while they professed allegiance to Ferdinand, declined to acknowledge the provisional government established in the mother country. The Cortes, however, claimed the same supremacy as before; and as they were supported by all the Americans of Spanish origin, a long and desperate struggle was maintained. It issued, however, in the complete independence of all the great states on the continent of America, Spain retaining only her insular possessions. Even Brazil has been separated from Portugal on the condition of being governed by a different branch of the house of Braganza. Thus Europe retains her dominion only over the West India islands, over the Guianas in South America, over a large extent of North America still held by Britain, and a smaller one claimed by Russia. All the rest is held by people of European origin, indeed, but who, born and educated in America, consider themselves as entirely belonging to this continent.

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## DANISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

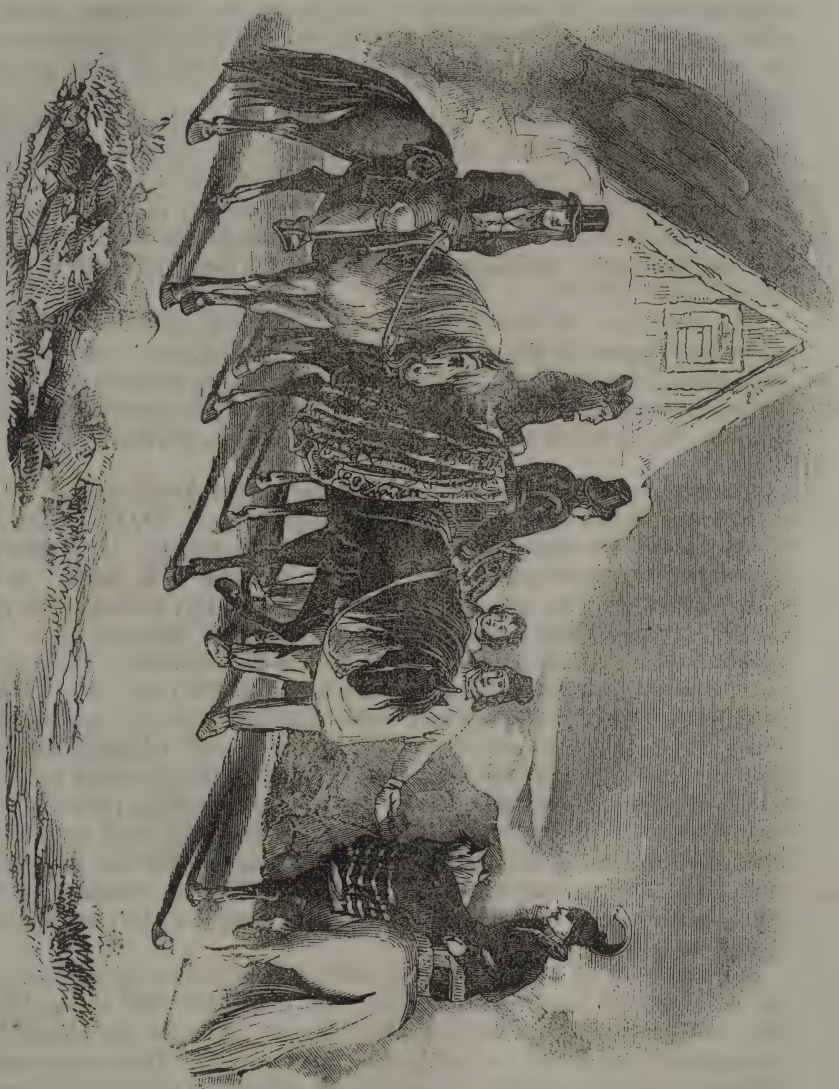
GREENLAND, Iceland, Jan Mayen's Land, &c., are the possessions of Denmark. Number of square miles, 380,000. Population, 65,000. Chief places, Uppernavic, Rekiavik. Greenland was discovered in 911; Iceland in 874.

GREENLAND was formerly supposed to join the continent, but recent discoveries render it probable that it is an island, lying between long. 20° and 75° west, and extending north from lat. 59° 49'. It is high and rocky, its surface presenting a chaotic assemblage of sterile mountains, bare or covered with ice, which also occupies a great portion of the valleys. The





ICELAND—CATARACT OF FOSSVOLLUM



ICELANDERS.



centre is traversed by lofty mountains, dividing the country into East and West Greenland. Of the former, little is known; but it is said to consist of one extensive glacier, exhibiting only a few patches of vegetation.

Among the animals, are the rein-deer in the south, and the polar bear in the north; white hares, foxes of various colors, and dogs; seals abound on the southern coasts, where also the walrus is met with. In the north seas are whales of several species; and in the sea, rivers and fiords, an abundance of fish. Fishing and sealing are the principal occupations of the natives. Sea-fowl, eagles, ravens, and other birds of prey, are very numerous.

The climate is intensely cold. The sun has considerable power, however, during the summer, but fine weather never continues long. The aurora-borealis has sometimes a light equal to that of the full moon. In these latitudes there is no night in summer and no day in winter.

There are in West Greenland thirteen colonies, fifteen minor commercial and ten missionary establishments; the most northerly of these is Upper navic, in lat.  $72^{\circ} 50'$ .

The commerce of Greenland is, of course, very limited. The trade gives employment to five or six vessels. Whale oil, seal, bear, and rein-deer skins, eider-down, &c., form the catalogue of its exports; the imports consist of such manufactures as are required by the peculiarities of the country, among which are woollens, blankets, coffee, spirits, &c., &c.

ICELAND is a large island on the confines of the Arctic circle. It has an area of 30,000 square miles, and a population of 50,000. The land appears to owe its existence to submarine volcanic agency. It is traversed by ranges of mountains, and the coast is indented with fiords. In the south-east there is an extensive tract of level country, covered with vegetation; but two-thirds of the island is buried under lava and snow. The general aspect of the country is desolate in the extreme. Some of the yokuls, or ice mountains, have an elevation of 7,000 feet. Mt. Hecla is remarkable for the frequency and violence of its eruptions; and there are about 30 other volcanoes, which occasionally spread frightful desolation over the land. The intermitting hot springs form the greatest wonder of these polar regions, and are used by the natives in cooking their food. In some parts of the island vast cauldrons of boiling mud send up their columns of dense vapor, and obscure the atmosphere. The sun is visible at midnight, at the summer solstice, from the hills; but the summers are very short, and are succeeded by a cold, dark and dreary winter, not enlivened by the sun's rays.

Agriculture is on a limited scale, confined chiefly to the growing of grass for the herds of black cattle. There are about 500,000 sheep, 50,000 head of cattle, and from 50 to 60,000 head of horses, on the island. The population are employed in feeding cattle and fishing. There are no manufactures, except of a domestic nature, carried on. As little or no money is used, barter is the prevailing system.

The Icelanders are chiefly of Norwegian origin, and have a frank, open countenance, florid complexion, and flaxen hair. Domestic education is universal, and the people are very attentive to their religious and moral duties. They are fond of their *sagas*, or ancient traditional tales, which are read aloud in their families during the long winter evenings.

The affairs of the island are presided over by a governor. It also constitutes a bishopric, with about 300 clergy, who are very poor. In the principal schools are taught the classics, theology, and the Danish language.

Iceland was discovered by a Norwegian pirate, in 860, and a settlement effected in 874. In 928 a republic was established, with a general assembly. They maintained their independence 400 years; but in the 13th century became subject to Norway, and it is now a colonial dependence of Denmark.

SPITZBERGEN is the most northerly land hitherto discovered, and lies between the 76th and 81st deg. north latitude, and about midway between Nova Zembla and Greenland. The coasts are iron-bound, presenting but few harbors; and the surface of the land mostly destitute of vegetable or animal life. It was once a station for the whale fishery, but the whales are now scarce in the surrounding seas, and the place but seldom visited.

These lands were discovered in 1533, and surveyed by Capt. Phipps in 1773. The sovereignty is in Denmark, but is also claimed by Russia. There is no stationary population.

JAN MAYEN'S LAND, in lat. 71°, is a small island, nominally belonging to Denmark, and lies generally about 7,000 feet above the ocean. It was discovered in 1611; and is now sometimes used as a harbor for whale ships.

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## FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE once vast possessions of France in North America have now dwindled down to the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, containing an area of 18 square miles, and a population of about 100. They lie on the south of Newfoundland, and are used only as fishing stations for French vessels. A treaty exists between the United States and the French government in regard to these dependencies. The governor resides at St. Pierre.

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## RUSSIAN POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THIS territory contains an area of 394,000 square miles, and the population is variously estimated from 50 to 60,000, including aborigines. It comprehends the north-western portion of North America, from 54° 40' to Behring's Straits.

The possessions of Russia on the continent are mountainous, and along





ARCTIC ZOOLOGY—POLAR BEARS

POLAR REGIONS—ICE MOUNTAINS—WALRUS.





the coasts several culminations attain great elevation, and are perpetually covered with snow. Mt. St. Elias is elevated 17,900 feet above the level of the ocean. Very little is known of the interior. There are several extensive islands along the coasts, which are included in the Russian territory. The climate is very severe, and the country subject to sudden changes. The Russian American company had, formerly, possession of the whole territories, and established posts. In 1824 a treaty was formed between Russia and the United States, defining the boundary of the former, and limiting them to the country north of  $54^{\circ} 40'$ . The British have since obtained a twenty years' lease of the continental portion of these territories, and the Russians only occupy the islands off the coast. New Archangel, the capital, is situated on the coast of the island of Sitka, and contains about 1,000 inhabitants. Here are the boards and warehouses of the company.

The *Aleutian Islands*, stretching from the Peninsula of Kamskatka, in Asia, to Cape Alaska, in North America, though comprised in the government of Irkutsk, may be considered as belonging to this region. These are very numerous, occupying a circular arc, extending from  $165^{\circ}$  to  $195^{\circ}$  east longitude. Apparently, this insular chain consists of the summits of a range of submarine mountains. They are of volcanic origin, and at the present day are subject to eruptions. Earthquakes are common, and frequently violent. Behring's Island, Attoo and Oonalashka are the largest, the first being 104 miles in length; but many are only inconsiderable rocks, intersected by channels, varying in width and safety, and generally exhibit a barren aspect; high conical mountains, covered with snow, being their most prominent features. Vegetation is scanty; there are no trees or plants surpassing the dimensions of low shrubs and bushes, but abundance of fine grass is observed in the more sheltered valleys, and different roots, indigenous or transplanted, are there found. Onimack, one of the islands, contains enormous volcanoes, one of which, Chichaldinsk, is about 8,083 feet above the level of the sea. The seas abound in fish, and wild birds are plentiful. The hunting of the sea-otter, the skin of which affords a fur of the finest quality, was formerly carried on to a great extent, but an indiscriminate destruction has greatly reduced the number, and comparatively few are now taken. The seal is also a valuable animal, affording the inhabitants a constant supply of food and clothing: the thin membrane of the entrails is also used in the place of glass. Foxes are the principal quadrupeds. The natives, a grade between the North American Indian and Mongol Tartar, are indolent, but peaceable and extremely charitable, and at the same time stubborn and revengeful. Tattooing is practised among them; but the young ladies, finding the Russians do not approve of these disfigurements, are gradually abolishing the custom. The laws of matrimony are very loose: a man may have as many wives as he can maintain, and a woman may have two husbands; it is not an uncommon affair, indeed, for men to exchange their wives with each other. The principal subsistence of the Aleutians is derived from fishing and hunting. Their habitations are spacious excavations in the earth, roofed over with turf, and sometimes as many as 100 to 150 persons occupy an apartment. Only a few of these islands are inhabited, and it is stated that the population has decreased since the Russians possessed the country: at the present time it is variously estimated at from a few hundred to 6,000. The

islands were partially discovered by Behring, in 1741, and were afterwards visited by a number of explorers. There is, however, as yet, but little known concerning them, further than their existence.

## BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE colonial dependencies of Great Britain in North America cover a vast extent of territory, computed at over 2,500,000 square miles. They have each a separate local government, and the following table will exhibit their names, extent, population &c.

NAMES, EXTENT, &C., OF THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

| Names.                       | Sq. Miles. | Population. | Capitals.      |
|------------------------------|------------|-------------|----------------|
| New Britain .....            | 2,000,000  | 162,686     | York Factory.  |
| Canada West .....            | 147,000    | 723,087     | Toronto.       |
| Canada East .....            | 209,890    | 768,334     |                |
| New Brunswick .....          | 27,700     | 220,000     | Frederickton.  |
| Nova Scotia, &c. ....        | 19,630     | 278,905     | Halifax.       |
| Prince Edward's Island ..... | 2,134      | 62,678      | Charlottetown. |
| Newfoundland .....           | 57,000     | 91,264      | St. John's.    |
| Belize .....                 | 62,740     | 3,000       | Belize.        |
| Bermuda .....                | 47         | 14,000      | Hamilton.      |

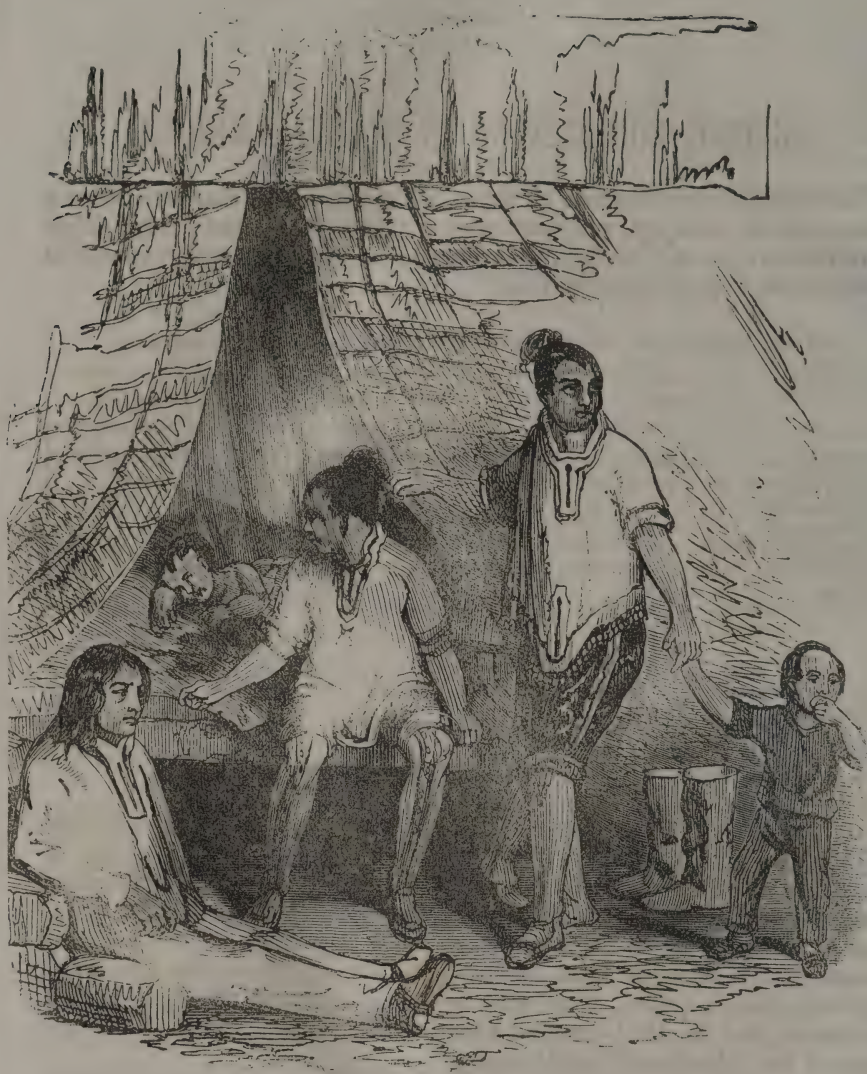
## NEW BRITAIN, OR TERRITORIES OF HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY.

In 1670 a charter was granted by Charles II. to an association styled the "Hudson's Bay Company," who enjoyed the trade of the vast territory of New Britain, without opposition, until 1787; at which period a powerful rival was organized under the title of the "North American Fur Company," composed chiefly of Canadians. The conflicting interests of the two companies led to the most barbarous battles, and the sacking and burning each other's posts. This state of things arrested the attention of parliament, and in 1821 the two companies were consolidated, under the name of the "Hudson's Bay Company."

This association is now in possession of all that tract of country extending from Baffin's Bay and Davis' Straits on the east, to the Russian Possessions and Pacific Ocean on the west; and from the northern line of Canada to the Arctic Sea. They have also leased for a period of 20 years, commencing in 1840, all of Russian America, except the post of Sitka.

Into this region of ice and eternal snow the beams of the sun scarcely ever penetrate. The winters are severe in the extreme; brandy freezes,





ESQUIMAUX — GREENLAND.



OTTER.



and rocks split with the intense cold. The *aurora borealis*, sometimes mild and serene, sometimes dazzling and agitated, equals the light of the full moon. These imposing scenes serve only to augment the solemn melancholy of the desert. Nothing can be more frightful than the environs of Hudson's Bay. The precipitous rocks, rising to the clouds and yawning into deep ravines and barren valleys, are rendered inaccessible by masses of snow and ice, which never melt. That sea-like bay is only open from July to September, and even then is much obstructed by icebergs.

Hudson's Bay affords only small quantities of fish; but the lakes abound in pike, sturgeon and trout, and the banks are inhabited by aquatic birds, such as swans, geese, and ducks. The Coppermine and other northern rivers swarm with vast shoals of fish. The principal quadrupeds are the buffalo, musk-ox, moose, deer, beaver, wolf, foxes of different colors, the lynx, white, black, and brown bears, the wolverine, otter, ermine, pine-marten, muskrat, squirrel, &c.

The world of vegetation almost terminates in these northern solitudes, and the trees present but few species,—the pine, dwarf larch, poplar, willow, and dwarf birch complete the catalogue.

For the convenience of transactions the country has been divided into 22 districts. Mr. Farnham, in his work on Oregon, says: "An annual Council, composed of the Governor-general, chief factors, and chief traders, is held at York Factory. Before this body are brought the reports of the trade of each district; propositions for new enterprises, and modifications of old ones; and all these, and other matters deemed important, being acted upon, the proceedings had thereon and the reports from the several districts are forwarded to the Board of Directors in London, and subjected to its final order.

"This shrewd company never allow their territory to be overtrapped. If the annual return from any well trapped district be less in any year than formerly, they order a less number still to be taken, until the beaver and other fur-bearing animals have time to increase. The income of the company is thus rendered uniform, and their business perpetual.

"Some idea may be formed of the net profit of their business, from the facts that the shares of the company's stock, which originally cost £100, are 100 per cent. premium, and that the dividends range from ten per cent. upward, and this, too, while they are creating, out of the net proceeds, an immense reserve fund, *to be expended in keeping other persons out of the trade.*"

Several settlements have been established in the eastern sections by the Moravian brethren, and they have taught the Eskimaux many of the useful arts of life.

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## THE CANADAS.

This territory lies principally in a north-east and south-east direction along the north side of the St. Lawrence, and the north and east sides of lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Superior, between 57° 50' and 90° west long., and 42° and 52° north lat. The other portion of Canada, or that on the south side of the St. Lawrence, is of comparatively limited dimensions: it stretches along the river from near Montreal to Point Gaspé,

at its embouchure, having on the south the territory of the United States and New Brunswick. On the north, Canada has Labrador and the inhospitable territories belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company, the boundary in this direction being the elevated grounds, or water-sheds, separating the rivers which run south to the St. Lawrence and the great lakes from those which run north to Davis's Straits and Hudson's Bay. The length of Canada, from Amherstburg, on Detroit River, the extreme south-west limit of the province, to Sablon Harbor, on the strait of Belleisle, its extreme north-east limit, is about 1,450 miles; its breadth may vary from 200 to 400 miles. Its area has been estimated at about 350,000 square miles; and its population is at present (1851) probably one and a half millions. It is wholly within the basin of the St. Lawrence, of which it includes the entire north, and a small part of the south division.

In 1791 it was divided into the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, but was again united for legislative purposes in 1841. The Ottawa, or Grand River, forms, nearly in its whole extent, the line of demarcation between the provinces.

Canada is intersected by a number of chains or ridges of mountains, extending from the coast far into the interior, and between these lie extensive and fertile valleys, equal in soil and productiveness to any lands in the New World. North of the St. Lawrence, and near the eastern extremity of Lower Canada, rises a ridge of heights, and which stretches close to the river for upwards of a hundred miles, and forms its rugged banks as far as Cape Tourment. Here the ridge, taking a direction west-south-west, terminates on the River Ottawa, after extending from Cape Tourment along the course of the river about 300 miles. The country between it and the St. Lawrence, from 15 to 30 miles in breadth, is beautifully picturesque, well-watered and level; towards the west especially, this tract may be considered as the choicest part of the province.

North of this ridge, and between the Ottawa River and the 81st meridian and the 52d parallel, the country is intersected by another and higher range of mountains, which runs into the interior in a north-west direction, at about the distance of 200 miles from the former ridge, and which forms the water-shed between the St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay. This is an immense wilderness, and, as far as known, is covered with dense forests, whose solitudes are only disturbed by the native hunters.

South of the St. Lawrence a ridge commences about 100 miles below Quebec, which takes a south-west course, and opposite that city is about ten leagues distant from the river. The intervening country is fertile and well-wooded, and capable of a high state of cultivation. Continuing in the same direction, this chain crosses the boundary line between the Canadas and the United States, and proceeds on the same course until it meets with the Hudson River. The level tract from the St. Lawrence northward, rich in soil and with a climate favorable to health and plenty, forms the site of the most flourishing and populous settlements in the country.

The country which lies between lakes Ottawa and Erie, and which extends around the western extremity of Lake Ontario, is rich and fertile, and contains a number of settlements. The northern shores of lakes Superior and Huron are yet but the home of the trapper, and little settled.

The climate of Canada is subject to great extremes of heat and cold, the thermometer ranging between 102° above, and 30° below, the zero of





ZOOLOGY — BLACK AND GRAY SQUIRRELS.





ZOOLOGY—LYNX.



Fahr. In such an extensive region there is, of course, some difference in this respect; still, the Canadian climate, as a whole, may be considered as very severe: all the streams are locked up by ice, and the ground is deeply covered with snow, for four and sometimes five months every year. Frosts commence in October, and in November a succession of snow storms and tempests. The snow begins to melt in April, and in May vegetation begins to resume its suspended powers; the fields are soon clothed with verdure, and spring can scarcely be said to exist before summer arrives. In the upper province the winter is shorter than in the lower; nor is the cold so intense. Most of the causes that contribute to make the climate of America more severe, and subject to greater extremes than that of Europe, in the same parallel, bear with especial force on the Canadian regions.

The greater portion of these provinces is covered with dense forests; the trees composing which, especially on the more northern and eastern parts, do not, generally speaking, attain the same lofty size as those of the United States, nor flourish with the same exuberant vitality. The pine family, and various species of evergreens, are the most numerous and predominant. Among various other kinds of trees, are the silver and American firs, Weymouth and Canadian pines, white cedar, maple, birch, American ash, bass-wood, hickory, two or three species of wild cherry, and numerous varieties of oak. The sugar maple is abundant.

Among the wild animals ranging through the unreclaimed regions, are the American elk, fallow deer, bear, wolf, fox, wild-cat, raccoon, marten, otter, and various species of *viverræ* and *mustelæ*; the beaver, hare, grey and red squirrel, and in the more southern parts, the buffalo and roe-buck. The bears usually hybernate, if the season has enabled them to get sufficiently fat for the purpose; if not, they migrate to a warmer climate.

Among the birds may be mentioned the wild-pigeon, quail, partridge, and different kinds of grouse; water birds are very numerous, as might be inferred from the general character of the region. Fish in great abundance swarm in the rivers; and the race of reptiles is well represented.

Tobacco, hemp, flax, and the different kinds of grain and pulse, are successfully cultivated, as are all the common fruits and vegetables of England and the United States. Western, or Upper Canada, is distinguished, in an agricultural point of view, for the production of a superior quality of wheat. Winter and spring wheats are grown in about equal proportions, and the annual exports of this article range from five to ten millions of bushels. The country lying north of Toronto, and west of Hamilton, produces a quality of wheat that is as highly prized, in the Rochester and Oswego markets, as that produced in the far-famed Genessee valley; and the imports in 1850, at those points, from that source, were upwards of three millions of bushels. The yield of this crop averages from 25 to 35 bushels per acre. Peas are cultivated extensively, as a preparation crop for wheat, and some millions of bushels are grown, annually, and are used for feeding hogs, and large quantities are exported to Europe. The yield of this crop averages about 35 bushels, but in many instances as high as 50 bushels are grown per acre. Barley is a very common crop, and is used principally for the production of malt liquors, which are drank as a beverage, to a great extent, by the citizens of Canada. From 35 to 50 bushels of barley are grown per acre, and it is generally considered a

highly remunerating crop. The oat crop seems to flourish better than any other in Canada, and consequently is extensively cultivated. The yield averages from 50 to 80 bushels per acre.

Canada does not appear to be rich in minerals, but iron abounds in some districts, and coal, salt and sulphur are known to exist in the country. Veins of silver-lead have been met with in St. Paul's Bay; and a great excitement was at one time produced by the discovery of some gold mines near Quebec. No volcanoes have ever been discovered, but authentic accounts are preserved of violent earthquakes; and the shores, both of the gulf and river St. Lawrence, according to Lyell, present proofs of former convulsions.

The area and population of the Canadas are given in the table. In 1847, 170,000 emigrants landed in the several districts, besides many who passed through the United States. Lower Canada is divided into the four districts of Quebec, Montreal, Three Rivers, and Gaspi; Upper Canada is divided into twenty districts, named Home, Gore, Niagara, London, Western, Eastern, Johnston, Ottawa, Bathurst, Newcastle, Midland, Huron, Talbot, Brock, Simcoe, Victoria, Wellington, and Colborne. These are subdivided into counties, townships, seignories, parishes, &c.

The people of Lower Canada are chiefly of French extraction, but those of the upper province are British, many of whom are from Scotland: comparatively small numbers of the Irish emigrate to this country. The French population cling to old customs and prejudices, but they are honest, industrious and hospitable. They retain, indeed, all the characteristics of the old French, and present the spectacle of an old, uneducated and stationary society, in the midst of a new and rapidly advancing country. A few families possess large properties, but among the mass of the *habitans* there is an almost uniform equality of condition, property and ignorance. The rest of the population is chiefly British, and to them is owing the development of the productive resources of the country. The aboriginal inhabitants still occupy some regions northward of lakes Huron and Superior, but their numbers are diminishing. Canada was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1498. Some years after the French navigator Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence to Montreal, upon which voyage the French founded their claim to Canada. In 1525 the country was taken possession of by France, and in 1608 a colony was founded under the title of New France. By the events of the war of 1756-63, Canada was transferred to Britain. In 1836 an attempt was made by the people of Upper Canada to establish their independence of the mother country, which proved unsuccessful. The government of the provinces is vested in a Governor General, appointed by the crown, and assisted by a Council. The Legislative Assembly has the exclusive right of raising revenues for the internal expenses of the colonies. The French colonists are nearly all Catholics; their clergy are numerous, and nunneries are established in different sections. There is an English Bishop appointed by the crown, but Episcopacy is not the prevalent form of church government, as there are a great many dissenters.

|                          |         |                              |       |
|--------------------------|---------|------------------------------|-------|
| Roman Catholics.....     | 570,000 | Baptists.....                | 8,500 |
| Church of England.....   | 42,000  | Methodist Episcopalians..... | 7,400 |
| Wesleyan Methodists..... | 20,000  | Universalists.....           | 1,200 |

Since 1841, the year that the mother country ceded to the colonists the principles of constitutional government, as understood in Great Britain, and



the power of local self-government, great changes have been effected in the general prosperity of the country, and also in the tone of public political sentiment.

A general school system is in full and successful operation, and from the public treasury of the province the sum of \$400,000 is annually appropriated for the support of common schools. In connection with this system are two normal schools, both of which have been some years in successful operation, and the number of students to each range from 200 to 300, including both sexes, who are taught in all the higher branches of English literature, and also in the practical sciences, free of cost.

The universities, colleges and academies are now well sustained, most of which are liberally endowed by large grants of lands from the public domain; the most distinguished of which is King's College, Toronto. In each district, and indeed in nearly all of the counties, are from one to two grammar schools, which receive each four hundred dollars per annum to sustain the teachers. The funds to support this department of the school system are derived from the rents and interests of the grammar school lands of the colony, appropriated for that purpose during the reign of George the Third.

Internal improvements are yet in their infancy, and consist chiefly of a few canals. The *Rideau* is 135 miles long, and was executed by the British government at a cost of about \$6,000,000. The *Welland* is 42 miles long, and cost \$2,500,000. It was built to avoid the Falls of Niagara, and is navigable for vessels of 150 tons burthen. There are few railroads, but an enterprising spirit is abroad, and several lines are projected, and some progressing, to connect with lines from the United States, and others with those of the interior. A suspension bridge over the Niagara has been recently completed. The great highways of Canada are its lakes and rivers.

KINGSTON is advantageously situated at the head of the Cataraqui river and the Rideau canal. The harbor is well sheltered, and accessible to ships of 18 feet draught, and contains the royal naval station of the lakes. The entrance is strongly fortified. Churches of every denomination are found in the place, and many fine stores. Population about 14,000.

TORONTO, the capital of the Canadas, contains about 30,000 inhabitants, and occupies a good situation in a fine bay on Lake Ontario.

QUEBEC, the former capital of Lower Canada, is situated partly on a bold headland rising 350 feet above the bank of the St. Lawrence, between it and the river St. Charles, and partly on the narrow margin of the river below the rock. The principal part of the upper town is enclosed with fortifications, which are considered to be impregnable, and the summit of Cape Diamond is crowned by the citadel, a very strong fortress. Population in 1850, 40,000. The Hotel Dieu or General Hospital, the Roman Catholic and Protestant Episcopal Cathedrals, the Jesuits' Barracks, the Parliament House, and the Obelisk, erected to the memory of Wolfe and Montcalm, are the principal objects of interest. Lat. 46° 48' N. Long. 70° 72' W. It is situated 420 miles from the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and is accessible to the largest ships.

MONTREAL, on an island of the same name, is situated at the mouth of the Ottawa, and at the foot of a hill which commands a delightful prospect. Population in 1850, 45,000. Though 600 miles from the gulf, it is accessible for large ships, and its trade is very extensive. The Roman Catholic Cathedral is a very fine building, capable of containing 12,000 persons; and some of the convents and hospitals are striking objects. The island is a beautiful oval-shaped tract, 32 miles long by 10 broad, with an almost level surface, there being only one hill of considerable elevation, and one or two of smaller dimensions. It forms one seignory belonging to the Catholic clergy. Montreal was the capital until October, 1849.

The commerce of the Canadas is of some consideration, and under the fostering care of the mother country has steadily increased in importance. It is principally carried on through the ports of Quebec, Montreal, St. John's, Coteau du Lac, and Stanfield. From the United Kingdom, the Canadas import metals, cordage, East India produce, and the manufactures of Britain; from the West Indies, sugar, molasses, coffee, &c.; and from the United States, beef, pork, flour, rice and tobacco. Timber is, by far, the principal export of the colony; then follow grain, ashes, furs, fish, and other raw products. The commerce between Canada and the United States, is steadily increasing, and has now a promising aspect; and her internal trade is one of the most prominent symptoms of her prosperity.

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## NEW BRUNSWICK.

The Province of New Brunswick consists of an extensive tract, of about 27,000 square miles, and lies contiguous to the State of Maine and Lower Canada. The greater part is still covered with dense forests, but the land is considered fertile. The face of the country is moderately undulating; there are some groups of hills, particularly in the northern part. Streams and rivers intersect it, suitable for navigation and manufacturing purposes, the largest of which is the St. Johns. The climate resembles that of Canada. The natural products are numerous and valuable; wild animals are plentiful, and the rivers and lakes abound in fish.

As yet, New Brunswick has a small population of about 220,000, and the principal settlements are along the river St. Johns, and its lakes. The town of St. Johns is the largest in the province, and the seat of an extensive trade. Frederickton is situated 90 miles above St. Johns, on the same river. The cutting and export of timber form the principal trade of the district. The province is divided into eleven counties.

Agriculture, notwithstanding the rich tracts of alluvial soil skirting the rivers and large indentations of the sea, is considerably less advanced than in Nova Scotia and the Canadas. This is owing, in part, to the later settlement of the province, but chiefly to the people preferring the more profitable but far more laborious occupation of lumbering. Wheat, corn, barley and oats, are the principal grain crops, but by far the most important article is the produce in potatoes, the crop of which may be annually estimated at not less than 3,000,000 bushels. Pasturage is followed to some extent, and it is estimated that the live stock of the province is not less than 130,000 horses, 100,000 cattle, 150,000 sheep, and 60,000 hogs.



The felling and conveyance of timber constitutes, however, as before observed, the great employment of the laboring classes. Many of the trees, especially the yellow pine, attain great size, and furnish timber of good quality, though inferior to that of Norway and the Baltic. It is principally conveyed to Great Britain in the log, and some is manufactured into deals, boards, staves, &c.

Ship-building is extensively carried on, especially at St. Johns. The number of ships built in 1846, was 164, of the aggregate burden of 45,864 tons. These are generally, however, of the class called "*slop-built*," and do not enjoy a high character for solidity or endurance.

The form of government is much similar to that of the other British possessions. The parliament consists of 26 members, and sits at Fredericton. The revenues are raised from sales of land, taxes and other imposts; they are small, and only capable of defraying the civil expenditures. The army is paid by Great Britain, but every man is subject to military duty. The charge of religion is vested in the Bishop of Fredericton. The people are pretty equally divided among the different sects in religion; and in regard to education, a tolerable number of establishments exist. There is a college at the capital.

This tract of country suffered by one of the most terrible conflagrations on record, in 1825. The flames kindled by accident at several points, and impelled by a violent wind laid waste about one hundred miles of territory, involving it in smoke and flame, and reduced to ashes the towns of Douglas and Newcastle. Nearly 200 persons are said to have perished, and more than 2000 to have been reduced to entire destitution.

This country was formerly comprised by the French in the province of New France. In 1763 it was ceded to Great Britain.

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## NOVA SCOTIA.

Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, together, form one of the British provinces of North America, and are separated by the Gut of Canseau. It is bounded north by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, west by the Bay of Fundy, which separates it from New Brunswick, and south and south east by the Atlantic ocean. It lies between 43° and 46° north latitude, and 61° and 67° west longitude, and contains 19,630 square miles. The land varies much in respect to fertility; the coast presenting a barren aspect, but in the interior there are large tracts of land of the first quality. There are no elevations deserving the name of mountains, but about one third of its superficies is occupied by lakes of various sizes. The rocks and islands which fringe the Atlantic coast, are exceedingly picturesque, and deep water is found close to the shores. The great coal fields of Nova Scotia are near Pictou, as are also several brine springs. Iron is abundant in the coal strata, and some varieties of lead and copper ore.

The climate of Nova Scotia, with respect to temperature, bears a general resemblance to that of Lower Canada, and is subject to the same great and sudden variations. The difference of temperature within 24 hours often exceeds 50°. The snow-storms are very heavy, some having been known to continue 60 or 70 hours without intermission. The severity of

winter ends late in March. A very warm summer occupies three months, dating from the early part of June. Rheumatic and inflammatory complaints are frequent; and considerable mortality occurs from pulmonary consumption, but on the whole, Nova Scotia may be considered a healthy country.

The government of Nova Scotia is vested in a Lieutenant Governor, subordinate to the Governor-General of British North America; a Council appointed by the Crown, and a Legislative Assembly, elected by the freeholders.

The state religion is Protestant Episcopal, but other sects have large congregations, the Presbyterians being the most numerous. There is a royal college at Windsor, and ample schools and academies for the education of the people.

There are 10 counties and 52 parishes. The chief towns are Halifax, Truro, Londonderry, &c. The capital, Halifax, is pleasantly situated on the slope of a rising ground, facing a fine spacious bay. It contains a population of 25,000, and is the centre of the foreign commerce of the colony, and the depot for the British naval forces. The Cunard steamships which ply between Boston and Liverpool, have a station here.

The population of the province amounts to 278,000. Among these are about 6,000 Acadians, the descendants of the old French settlers, who congregate in settlements of their own, mixing little with the other classes of inhabitants.

The fruits produced in the country are numerous. Besides a great variety of wild fruits, gooseberries, strawberries, cherries, and raspberries, there are pears of various kinds, and all the varieties of English plums, apples of a very superior quality, and some other fruits. The other vegetable products are cucumbers, potatoes, artichokes, cauliflowers, cabbage, beans, and peas. Hops are an invariable and sure crop, and may be raised in great abundance. Pumpkins and Indian corn are cultivated to a great extent. Carrots, onions, parsnips, beets, celery, and most other kitchen herbs, are produced with ease. The grains cultivated by the farmers are summer and winter wheat, rye, buckwheat, barley and oats. The natural forests are elm, cherry, white, black, yellow and gray birch, red oak, beech, white and yellow pine, white, red and black spruce, maples, &c.

The forests of Nova Scotia abound in good timber; pine and birch, oak, beech, ash and maple, are the most common trees; and many of the inhabitants have, for years, been supported by the timber trade. The principal wild animals in the province are the moose, deer, caribbo, bear, loup-cervier, fox, martin, otter, mink and squirrel. Hunting and trapping were once extensively pursued; but the decrease of animals has obliterated these employments from the industrial means of Nova Scotia. The fisheries employ many families, but the chief and most profitable pursuit is mining; the value of coal alone amounts annually to near \$200,000.

Gypsum, which abounds in the western districts, is highly prized in the United States as a manure; and a stone, which is extremely well adapted for grindstones, and is celebrated all over America under the appellation of "Nova Scotia blue grits," is found in many parts. The exports of these articles alone have been estimated at the value of \$100,000.

The manufactures are unimportant, and as a general thing come under the denomination of "*home spun*." Grist and saw mills are numerous besides which there are several breweries and tan-yards.



The geographical position of Nova Scotia gives it great commercial advantages, and its trade, especially with the United States, has been for some years steadily on the increase. The exports, chiefly to Canada, Great Britain and the United States, consist of fish-oil, timber, coals, &c. The trade principally centres in Halifax.

The means of internal communication are on a respectable footing, and improvements in this respect are being rapidly made. Water communication is also on a good scale, the natural facilities being augmented by canals in one or two locations.

Nova Scotia was discovered by Cabot in 1497, and was first settled by the French, who named it Acadia. It subsequently fell under the English, and in 1627 it was granted to Sir W. Alexander, and named Nova Scotia. In 1632 it was restored to France; but it several times subsequently changed hands, and was finally established in possession of the British in 1758.

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## PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

This Island is situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and measures 140 miles in length by 35 in breadth. The soil is generally fertile, yielding good crops of wheat and other grains; a surplus being exported to Nova Scotia. Flax, of excellent quality, is raised and manufactured into linen for domestic use. It is stated, that had the natural advantages of this island been turned to proper account, it might have been, at this time, the granary of the British colonies. Of about 1,300,000 acres fit for the plow, only 150,000 are cultivated.

Charlottetown is the capital of the island, and contains 4,000 inhabitants. The whole population of the island is reckoned at 62,678, made up chiefly of English settlers and some few Acadians.

The chief exports are timber, deals, fish, &c. The constitution is similar to that of Nova Scotia.

This island was taken from the French in 1756, and annexed to Nova Scotia in 1763. Since 1768 it has formed a separate colony.

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## NEWFOUNDLAND.

This large and valuable island lies near the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and off the east coast of Labrador, from which it is separated by the narrow strait of Belleisle, between  $46^{\circ} 30'$  and  $51^{\circ} 40'$  north latitude, and  $52^{\circ} 15'$  and  $59^{\circ} 10'$  west longitude. Greatest length from north to south 350 ms; and average breadth 130 miles. Area 57,000 square miles. Fixed population about 90,000, exclusive of those who visit the different stations during the fishing season. It may be generally described as of a triangular form, but is broken and indented with broad and deep bays, harbors, coves, rivers, and lagoons, which, besides numerous capes and projecting points of land, form two peninsulas, on one of which, called Avalon, at the south east corner of the island, is the town and harbor of Avalon. Its

surface is wild and rugged, and its aspect from the sea far from prepossessing. The interior, which till within the last twenty five years was almost unknown, is much broken with water; and lakes, marshes, and scrubby trees, form its general character. The only large and navigable streams are the Humber and that called the river of Exploits. Its prevalent geological constitution is of granite, on which are superimposed in some parts porphyry, quartz, gneiss, mica, and clay slate, with secondary formations; coal and iron also occur in a few places.

The east half of the interior is generally a low, picturesque country, traversed by hills and lakes, the whole being diversified by trees of humble growth. The country westward is more rugged and mountainous, with little wood, except near the shore. Spruce, birch, and larch, are the principal forest trees. Pine seldom occurs, and never attains a large size; indeed there is but little wood of any value, except for fuel and the building of small boats. Whortleberry bush and *wisha capucha* (Indian tea) are the principal plants on high unwooded grounds.

The best soil is along the rivers and at the head of the bays fringing the island; but both the soil and climate generally are unfavorable to the raising of grain, though well adapted to pasturage and the cultivation of potatoes and other green crops. Vast herds of caribboo deer graze in the plains and woods of the interior, and their flesh constitutes nearly the whole food of the Mic-Mac Indians. Beavers are much scarcer than formerly; but foxes are still numerous along the rivers and seacoast. Among the other wild animals are wolves and bears, hunted by the Indians from Labrador. Insects are numerous in swampy places, especially in hot weather. The best known and most celebrated of the animals belonging to Newfoundland are its dogs, famed for docility, obedience and attachment to their masters. They are remarkably voracious, and are usually fed on salted fish; but like the aborigines of the country, they endure hunger for a very lengthy period. The true web-footed breed has become very scarce, the animal so called in this country, though equally sagacious, hardy, and fond of the water, being a breed crossed with the mastiff, or some other species. The east and south coasts, where the winds blow from the sea, are very humid; and during winter the cold is intense. During the summer months, the days and nights are commonly serene and pleasant; the temperature is very hot during summer, and in winter frequently falls as low as 30° below the freezing point. The island, however, on the whole, is very healthy; and the inhabitants often attain a great age, attended with more than ordinary bodily as well as mental vigor. Agriculture is progressively increasing; but very few give it their exclusive attention, the population being principally employed in the fisheries. Almost every family, however, has a small quantity of land in cultivation, though tillage is very imperfectly understood.

Newfoundland has long been celebrated for its fisheries, on which, indeed, the inhabitants principally depend. The great bank, on the east side of the island, is in some places about 200 miles in breadth, and 600 miles in length, the soundings being from 25 to 95 fathoms. Fogs prevail almost without interruption on these banks, occasioned by the meeting of the waters brought thither by the Gulf Stream from the tropics, with the waters carried by the influence of the winds from the polar regions. A counter-current from the north sweeps, also, along the shore of Labrador,



bringing with it large ice-bergs, and rendering navigation dangerous, especially during foggy weather. The best fishing grounds on the great bank are between the 42d and 46th parallels; and the principal English settlements, besides St. Johns the capital, are Conception bay, Carbonier, Grace harbor, Trinity harbor, and Placentia, all on the east side of the island.

The cod-fishery commences early in June; and as the English have for some years abandoned the bank shoals to the Americans and French, it is principally carried on close to the shore, in small boats, manned by two or four persons. Every fisherman is provided with two lines, each with two hooks, baited with herrings, mackerel, and fish entrails. In some cases, *jiggers*, or artificial fish, are used, provided with two strong hooks, which the cod swallows with the bait. *Seines* are also used, by which multitudes of cod are hauled ashore in coves on the coast of Labrador. So abundant are the fish occasionally, that a couple of cod are hooked on each line before it reaches the bottom; and while one line is running out, the fisherman has only to turn round and pull in the other, with a fish on each hook.

The seal fishery is conducted in vessels varying from 80 to 120 tons, with crews of 20 or 30 men. The season commences early in April; it is principally conducted close to the shore of Labrador. The cod fishery on the west coast has been given up to the French; but there is still a small whale-fishery conducted in boats on the south side of the island. There is likewise a pretty extensive salmon fishery.

The trade of Newfoundland consists in the exportation of the products of its fisheries, (valued at \$5,000,000,) in exchange for manufactured goods, colonial produce, corn, ship-biscuits, and a variety of articles for the consumption of the inhabitants.

The government of Newfoundland was long administered by naval commanders appointed to cruise on the fishing station, who returned to Britain in winter. Within the last century, however, it has been deemed more eligible to have a resident governor. In 1832, in consequence of a petition from the inhabitants, a representative government was granted, the election being by almost universal suffrage.

An education act was passed in 1836, which has been the means of bringing within the reach of all, the benefits of elementary instruction. The population, however, are extremely unlettered and ignorant. There is no church establishment; but a titular Roman Catholic bishop, as well as a Protestant prelate, reside at St. Johns.

The inhabitants are honest and industrious, but often addicted to drunkenness, and superstitious to a degree almost beyond belief. The people, consisting chiefly of Irish, Scotch, and the inhabitants of Jersey and Guernsey, or their descendants, (the Indian aborigines having been long all but extinct,) are employed either wholly or occasionally in the fisheries. The pasture of cattle and sheep, and the cultivation of small spots of land, are likewise partial sources of occupation. The women, besides assisting the men in catching and curing the fish, are engaged either in rural occupations, or spinning and knitting worsted stockings, mittens and socks. In winter, much time is occupied in bringing home fuel, building boats, and making or repairing the fishing implements. Marriages and christenings are commonly celebrated at the close of the fishing season, or in winter, and are always times of great festivity and merriment.

Newfoundland was probably first discovered by John Cabot, in the summer of 1497, who gave it its present name. As early as the year 1500 an extensive fishery was carried on, by the Portuguese and French, on the neighboring banks.

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## HONDURAS

This settlement is on the eastern coast of Central America, and lies in 18° north latitude. It has an area of 62,000 square miles, but the population is very sparse. The coast is low and flat, but proceeding inland, the surface rises into an elevated region, covered with primeval forests. The rivers are numerous, and some of them large; the Balize being navigable 200 miles.

The climate is hot and humid, but the heat is moderated by the sea breezes, which blow at regular intervals. It has an average temperature of 80 degrees. The rains are so heavy that the Sibun river sometimes rises 50 feet in a few hours. The shores and banks of the rivers are covered with a deep and rich alluvial soil. The forests abound with the finest timbers, mahogany, logwood, &c., which are the staple products of the country, and their cutting the chief employment of the settlers. Cassava, yams, arrow-root, maize, &c., are grown for home consumption; the sugar cane, coffee, and cotton, succeed well, but are little cultivated; cocoa and indigo are indigenous.

The American tiger, the tapir, armadillo, raccoons, foxes, deer, and large numbers of monkeys, inhabit the country; birds and fish are in great variety, and sea turtles are plenty on the coast.

Honduras is governed by a superintendent appointed by the British crown, and seven elective magistrates. Balize is the only town in the settlement, and contains about 500 houses. The streets are regular, and the whole town shaded by cocoa-nut and tamarind trees.

The coast was discovered by Columbus in 1502, but the date of its settlement is not known. In 1670, Spain transferred it to England by treaty, but its occupation was long contested by the Spaniards. Since 1798, the sovereignty of the country has remained quietly in the hands of the British.

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## THE BERMUDA ISLANDS.

This group of islands is situated in latitude 32° north, and longitude 65° west, 600 miles distant from the coast of South Carolina, and when viewed from the ocean, they present a very picturesque appearance, being about 300 in all. They are estimated to contain 47 square miles, and a population, equally of blacks and Europeans, of about 14,000.

The climate of the Bermudas is delightful in summer, neither suffering the rigors of the north, nor the fervid heat of tropical regions. Nor in winter is much cold experienced; but the north-west winds which rage in those latitudes in that season, are awful, and lay waste the farms, and strew the shores with wrecks.



St. George's and St. David's, with other islands of minor importance, form several bays; and the harbor of St. George is large enough to contain the whole British navy, but is difficult of ingress and egress, in consequence of the smallness of its entrance. The principal island or main land as it is called, is about 20 miles in length, but it rarely exceeds one and a half in width. In the centre of the island, and on the north side of a beautiful bay, is the town of Hamilton, now the seat of government. The only places fortified are Ireland and St. George's islands, where forts have been lately built, which render the islands almost impregnable. At the former of these is the naval dock-yard, off which there is good anchorage and moorings laid down for 15 or 20 ships of war, though the break-water is extensive enough to contain a large fleet of the line. There are two other moorings for the navy, viz: Murray's anchorage, near the ferry, and Five Fathom's Hole, off the mouth of St. George's harbor. With the exception of two or three small detachments, the chief military force is stationed at St. George's.

The legislature of the Bermudas consists of a council of eight members and an assembly of thirty six members, each parish electing four of the latter. The executive is vested in a governor, who, with the council, is appointed by the crown. The parliaments are septennial, but are always newly elected on the accession of a new sovereign. The church establishment is under the surveillance of the bishop of Nova Scotia. Churches and Sunday schools are well endowed, and the attendance of the congregations and scholars are respectable. The school system, adopted by late enactments, is expected to work beneficially on the educational interests of the people, but at present few of the inhabitants can read or write, and a general ignorance and superstition prevail. The condition of the people has been much improved, however, by the establishment of friendly societies which have greatly sustained the welfare of the blacks since their emancipation.

The principal exports from the Bermudas, (the produce and manufactures of the islands,) are arrow root, potatoes, onions, and palmetto and straw hats, in producing which the people excel. They possess some 100 vessels, of from 120 to 150 tons, which are chiefly employed in the trade between the northern colonies and the West Indies. The whale fishery off the islands employs some of the people, and might be profitably carried on by suitable capital; at present it yields little more than 1,000 or 1,200 barrels of oil a year. The waters about the islands and reefs abound in a great variety of fish, but none are cured for exportation. Cattle and sheep are plentiful, and large quantities of poultry are fed for supplying the shipping that call at these islands. All the ordinary products of tropical climates, both animal and vegetable, are produced in abundance. The fruits are various and excellent.

But eight of these islands possess any importance; the others are mere rocks. They began to be settled in 1612, and drew for some time greater attention than their natural advantages justified. During the internal troubles which soon after took place in Great Britain, they became the asylum of many distinguished personages, and among others of the poet Waller, who, by celebrating the felicity of their climate, has spread around them a poetic lustre. Recently they were made the prison of the Irish patriot, Mitchell.

## THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

THE United States of America constitute the most celebrated Republic of the world. Among the nations of the earth, it ranks as second only to the greatest powers of Europe. It occupies the most valuable portion of North America, and lies between the parallels of 24° and 49° north latitude, and the meridians of 67° and 125° west longitude. Its greatest width, from east to west, is nearly 3,000 miles, and its greatest depth, from north to south, about 1,700 miles, containing 3,252,684 square miles, including California, Texas, &c. The frontier line of this vast republic extends 10,000 miles; of which 3,500 is sea coast, 1,600 gulf coast, and 1,500 lake coast, as shown in the following authentic table:

|                                                                                                    | Miles. |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| Length of the Atlantic coast, from the mouth of the St. Croix to the St. Mary's river,.....        | 1,450  |
| Length of the Atlantic coast from St. Mary's river to Cape of Florida,.....                        | 450    |
| Length of Gulf coast from Cape of Florida to the mouth of the Sabine river,.....                   | 1,200  |
| Length of Gulf coast acquired by the annexation of Texas, from the Sabine to the Rio Grande,.....  | 400    |
| Length of Pacific coast — in California, 970 — in Oregon, 600 — Straits of Juan de Fuca, 150,..... | 1,620  |
| Total,.....                                                                                        | 5,120  |

The areas of the several States of the Union are given in the annexed table, in square miles and acres:

| FREE STATES.             | Square Miles. | Acres.      | SLAVE STATES.                   | Square Miles. | Acres.      |
|--------------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------------------------|---------------|-------------|
| Maine, . . . . .         | 35,000        | 22,400,000  | Delaware, . . . . .             | 2,120         | 1,356,800   |
| Vermont, . . . . .       | 8,000         | 5,120,000   | Maryland, . . . . .             | 11,000        | 7,040,000   |
| New Hampshire, . . . . . | 8,030         | 5,129,200   | Virginia, . . . . .             | 61,352        | 39,265,280  |
| Massachusetts, . . . . . | 7,250         | 4,640,000   | North Carolina, . . . . .       | 45,500        | 29,120,000  |
| Rhode Island, . . . . .  | 1,200         | 768,000     | South Carolina, . . . . .       | 28,000        | 17,920,000  |
| Connecticut, . . . . .   | 4,750         | 3,040,000   | Georgia, . . . . .              | 58,000        | 37,120,000  |
| New York, . . . . .      | 46,000        | 29,440,000  | Kentucky, . . . . .             | 37,680        | 24,115,200  |
| New Jersey, . . . . .    | 6,851         | 4,384,640   | Tennessee, . . . . .            | 44,000        | 28,160,000  |
| Pennsylvania, . . . . .  | 47,000        | 30,080,000  | Louisiana, . . . . .            | 46,431        | 29,715,840  |
| Ohio, . . . . .          | 39,964        | 25,576,960  | Mississippi, . . . . .          | 47,147        | 30,174,080  |
| Indiana, . . . . .       | 33,809        | 21,637,760  | Alabama, . . . . .              | 50,722        | 32,462,080  |
| Illinois, . . . . .      | 55,405        | 35,459,200  | Missouri, . . . . .             | 67,380        | 43,123,200  |
| Michigan, . . . . .      | 56,243        | 35,995,520  | Arkansas, . . . . .             | 52,198        | 33,406,720  |
| Iowa, . . . . .          | 50,914        | 32,584,960  | Florida, . . . . .              | 59,268        | 37,931,520  |
| Wisconsin, . . . . .     | 53,924        | 34,511,360  | Texas, . . . . .                | 325,520       | 208,332,800 |
| California, . . . . .    | 448,691       | 287,162,240 | District of Columbia, . . . . . | 50            | 32,000      |
| Total, . . . . .         | 903,031       | 577,939,840 | Total, . . . . .                | 926,368       | 599,275,520 |

The boundary lines are settled by the following treaties:

| Treaties.                     | Date.        | Treaties.                              | Date. |
|-------------------------------|--------------|----------------------------------------|-------|
| 1. Treaty of Paris,.....      | 1783.        | 7. Treaty with Mexico,.....            | 1826. |
| 2. " " London,.....           | 1794.        | 8. " " Russia,.....                    | 1828. |
| 3. Louisiana Treaty,.....     | 1803.        | 9. Ashburton Treaty,.....              | 1842. |
| 4. Treaty of Ghent,.....      | 1814.        | 10. Texas Annexation Resolutions,..... | 1845. |
| 5. Convention of London,..... | 1813 & 1828. | 11. Oregon Treaty,.....                | 1846. |
| 6. Florida Treaty,.....       | 1819.        | 12. Treaty of Guadalupe,.....          | 1848. |

The great features of the country have been described in the preceding pages, under the head of America.

The United States are intersected by two principal ranges of mountains, the Alleghany and the Rocky mountains. The Alleghany mountains in



the east, run nearly parallel with the Atlantic coast, from Georgia, through Tennessee, Virginia, and Pennsylvania to New York. The Rocky mountains in the west, run across the territory nearly parallel with the coast of the Pacific ocean, at the distance from it of several hundred miles. The Alleghany mountains run in separate, and somewhat parallel ridges, with a breadth of from 60 to 120 miles, and at a distance from the sea coast of from 80 to 250 miles, and terminate in the Catskill mountains east of Hudson river, though some would extend them to the White mountains in New Hampshire. The general height of the Alleghany mountains is nowhere above 2,000 or 3,000 feet above the level of the ocean, and not more than one half of that above the adjacent country. The highest peak in this range is Black mountain, in the west part of North Carolina, which is 6,476 feet high. Round Top, the highest peak in the Catskill mountains, is 3,804 feet. The Rocky mountains may be regarded as a part of the great chain of the Cordilleras, and extend from Mexico to the 70° north latitude, running at an average distance of 600 miles from the Pacific ocean, with a general height of about 8,000 or 9,000 feet above the level of the sea, but not more than 5,000 feet above the level of their base. Some of their elevated peaks rise to the height of 10,000 or 12,000 feet. The Green mountains, a minor range, commence near New Haven, in Connecticut, and run through that state, Massachusetts, and Vermont, to the borders of Canada. Mansfield mountain, the highest peak in the chain, in a township of the same name in Vermont, is 4,280 feet high. The White mountains in New Hampshire are very elevated, the highest peak, Mount Washington, is 6,428 feet high. West of lake Champlain, in the State of New York, are the Adirondack mountains, the highest peak of which, Mount Marcy, is 5,460 feet high.

West of the Rocky mountains, the rivers generally flow west to the Pacific, the principal of which is the Columbia. The rivers between the Rocky and Alleghany mountains, are the Mississippi and its numerous tributaries, which flow into the gulf of Mexico, with the exception of a few of the smaller class which flow into the northern lakes. East of the Alleghany mountains the rivers flow into the Atlantic. The following are the principal rivers which flow into the Atlantic, with about their length in miles: Penobscot, 250; Kennebec, 200; Androscoggin, 170; Saco, 160; Merrimac, 200; Connecticut, 410; Hudson, 324; Delaware, 300; Susquehanna, 450; Potomac, 500; James, 500; Roanoke, 400; Cape Fear, 350; Pedee, 450; Santee, 450; Savannah, 500; Altamaha, 400; St. Johns, 300. The following rivers flow into the gulf of Mexico: Appalachicola, 500; Alabama, 600; Tombigbee, 450; Mississippi, 3,000. The following are tributaries of the Mississippi: Red, 1,500; Arkansas, 2,150; White, 1,200; Missouri, before its junction, 3,180; Kansas, 1,100; Platte, 1,600; Osage, 500; Yellowstone, 1,100; Ohio, 1,350; Illinois, 500; Des Moines, 800; Tennessee, 900; Cumberland, 600; Wabash, 500. The following rivers are west of the Rocky mountains: Columbia, 1,500; Multnomah, 900; Lewis, 900; Clarks, 600; Sacramento, Bueneventura, Colorado, and Gila. The above mostly include their remote sources.

The two largest lakes, that lie wholly within the United States, are Michigan and Champlain. But the great lakes, Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, are one half in the United States, the boundary between the United States and Canada passing through the middle of them. The fol

lowing is an authentic tabular statement of the extent of these fresh water seas, as represented in a report of the State Geologist of Michigan :

| Lakes.          | Mean Length. | Mean Breadth. | Mean Depth. | Elevation. | Area in sq. ms. |
|-----------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|------------|-----------------|
| Superior,.....  | 400 miles.   | 80 miles.     | 900 feet.   | 596 feet.  | 32,000          |
| Michigan,.....  | 220          | 70            | 1,000       | 578        | 15,000          |
| Huron,.....     | 240          | 80            | 1,000       | 578        | 20,000          |
| Green Bay,..... | 100          | 20            | 600         | 578        | 2,000           |
| Erie,.....      | 240          | 40            | 84          | 565        | 9,600           |
| Ontario,.....   | 180          | 35            | 500         | 232        | 6,800           |
| St. Clair,..... | 20           | 14            | 20          | 570        | 280             |

Lake Champlain, lying between Vermont and New York, is 128 miles long, and from 1 to 16 miles wide, and discharges its waters through the Sorel into the St. Lawrence. It is computed that the lakes contain above 14,000 cubic miles of water; a quantity more than five-sevenths of all the fresh water on the earth. The extent of country drained by the lakes, from the northwestern angle of Superior to the St. Lawrence, (including also the area of the lakes themselves, 85,180,) is estimated at 335,515 square miles.

The gulf of Mexico, on the south of the United States, is a large branch of the Atlantic ocean, and receives the waters of the Mississippi valley.

The soil of New England is generally rocky and rough, better adapted to grazing than to grain. The valley of the Connecticut, and some parts of Maine are exceptions to this remark. The low country on the Atlantic coast is generally light and sandy, not very fertile except on the margins of the rivers. The hilly country back of this is generally fertile. The soil generally in the valley of the Mississippi has great fertility. But toward the Rocky mountains it becomes sterile. The country beyond the Rocky mountains, with some exceptions, is but moderately fertile.

Beef, pork, butter, and cheese, are the principal productions of the eastern states, though a great amount of wool is raised, and various grains for home consumption. Wheat is the staple for the middle states. In the northern portion of the southern states, wheat and tobacco are chiefly cultivated; and in the low country at the south, cotton, rice, and sugar are extensively raised. The western states are the granary of the United States, and indeed of the world, and it is scarcely possible to set bounds to the bread stuffs which they are capable of producing.

Among the mineral treasures of the United States, iron ore, coal, and limestone are very extensive. The anthracite coal of Pennsylvania is inexhaustible, and the bituminous coal farther west is equally abundant. The lead region of Missouri, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa, is probably the finest in the world. Gold is found in large quantities in California, and to a considerable extent in Virginia, North Carolina, and Georgia, and marble and gypsum are very abundant. Copper abounds in the northwestern states and along the shores of lake Superior; vast boulders of copper, some tons in weight, have been found in the Wisconsin region; and such has been the activity of mining operations of late years, that the market has been almost entirely supplied from the west. The lake Superior copper mines are represented as being in a flourishing state:

|                                       |                |
|---------------------------------------|----------------|
| Amount of ore raised since 1847,..... | 10,244,200 lbs |
| do. shipped,.....                     | 1,693,805      |
| Balance to be smelted,.....           | 8,550,395      |



The climate of the United States has great variety, extending as it does through more than 20 degree of latitude, with a great variety in the elevation of its surface. In the northern part it is subject to great extremes of heat and cold, but is generally healthy. The Atlantic coast south of New Jersey, and the borders of the gulf of Mexico, have an unhealthy climate from July to November. Back from the sea coast, the elevated country is generally healthy, as are the western states, with the exception of some low and marshy portions.

COMMERCE.—In its commerce, the United States is the second country on the globe, being inferior only to Great Britain. It has attained an amazing magnitude; there is no part of the world that is not visited by American vessels; and the foreign and coasting trade, and the inland trade carried on over an unequalled extent of natural and artificial lines of communication, are all on an equal scale.

The domestic commerce may be divided into three branches: 1. That which is carried on coastwise, up the bays and large rivers, and on the great lakes, by schooners, sloops and steamboats. 2. That which is carried on chiefly in steamboats, but partly in rude flat-bottom boats on the affluents of the Mississippi. 3. The overland trade between the Western and Atlantic States, in hogs, horses, cattle and mules, amounts to several millions of dollars annually. The four maritime States of New England and the States of New York, Pennsylvania and Maryland, are the most devoted to navigation, foreign and coastwise. In endurance, management, and skill in naval architecture, the Americans may challenge the world.

No part of the world presents such an extensive river commerce. Steam vessels, a grand improvement first introduced in America, ply on all the principal lakes and rivers. Neither the States nor individuals have been slow in improving and extending the natural advantages of the country; and the spirit with which they have undertaken, and the perseverance they have shown in executing the most magnificent plans, have shed a lustre on the American name. The great land-locked bays of the coast have been connected by canals, and the eastern and western waters have been united by several channels, which either turn the Alleghanies, or surmount their summits. The waters of the great lakes and the Mississippi have been connected at various points, and the obstacles in the navigation of the most important rivers have been overcome by removing the bars, ledges, and rafts, which obstructed their channels, or by side-cuts, locks and dams. These great works give life to manufactures; invigorate and create internal trade; promote agriculture, and develop the mining industry of the country.

The amount of capital employed in foreign and domestic commerce is estimated at 500,000,000 dollars.

#### COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

|                                                                                      |                                           |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| Whole number of American vessels entered during the year ending June 30th, 1849..... | 11,203                                    |
| Whole number of foreign vessels entered.....                                         | 8,992                                     |
| Total of American and foreign vessels entered.....                                   | 20,200                                    |
| Whole number of American vessels cleared.....                                        | 11,466                                    |
| Whole number of foreign vessels cleared.....                                         | 8,847                                     |
| Total of American and foreign vessels cleared.....                                   | 20,313                                    |
| Crews of American vessels entered.....                                               | Men, 105,718; Boys, 3,329; Total, 109,047 |
| Crews of foreign vessels entered.....                                                | Men, 87,033; Boys, 2,651; Total, 89,684   |
| Crews of American vessels cleared.....                                               | Men, 109,349; Boys, 3,422; Total, 112,771 |
| Crews of foreign vessels cleared.....                                                | Men, 89,579; Boys, 2,704; Total, 92,283   |

EXPORTS OF THE PRODUCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Value of the Exports of the Growth, Produce and Manufacture of the United States, for the year ending June 30, 1849.

| Articles Exported.                                                          | Value.     | Articles Exported.                                    | Value.        |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|-------------------------------------------------------|---------------|
| <b>THE SEA.</b>                                                             |            |                                                       |               |
| <i>Fisheries —</i>                                                          |            | Hats .....                                            | \$64,937      |
| Dried fish, or cod fisheries.....                                           | \$419,092  | Saddlery .....                                        | 37,276        |
| Pickled fish, or river fisheries (her-<br>ring, shad, salmon, mackerel).... | 93,085     | Wax .....                                             | 121,720       |
| Whale and other fish oil.....                                               | 965,597    | Spirits from grain.....                               | 67,129        |
| Spermaceti oil.....                                                         | 572,763    | Beer, ale, porter and cider.....                      | 51,320        |
| Whalebone .....                                                             | 337,714    | Snuff and tobacco.....                                | 613,044       |
| Spermaceti candles .....                                                    | 159,403    | Linseed oil and spirits of turpentine..               | 148,056       |
| Total fisheries .....                                                       | 2,547,654  | Gordage .....                                         | 41,636        |
| <b>THE FOREST.</b>                                                          |            | <i>Iron —</i>                                         |               |
| Skins and furs.....                                                         | 656,228    | Pig, bar and nails .....                              | 149,358       |
| Ginseng .....                                                               | 182,966    | Castings .....                                        | 60,175        |
| <i>Products of Wood —</i>                                                   |            | All manufactures of.....                              | 886,639       |
| Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber                                       | 1,776,749  | Spirits from molasses.....                            | 288,452       |
| Other lumber .....                                                          | 60,344     | Sugar refined .....                                   | 129,001       |
| Masts and spars .....                                                       | 87,720     | Chocolate .....                                       | 1,941         |
| Oak bark and other dye.....                                                 | 95,392     | Gunpowder .....                                       | 181,297       |
| All manufactures of wood.....                                               | 1,697,828  | Copper and brass.....                                 | 66,203        |
| Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin and<br>turpentine .....                     | 845,164    | Medicinal drugs .....                                 | 220,894       |
| Ashes, pot and pearl.....                                                   | 815,608    | <i>Cotton Piece Goods —</i>                           |               |
| Total products of wood.....                                                 | 5,078,800  | Printed and colored .....                             | 466,574       |
| <b>AGRICULTURE.</b>                                                         |            | White .....                                           | 3,955,117     |
| <i>Products of Animals —</i>                                                |            | Nankeen .....                                         | 3,203         |
| Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle...                                       | 2,058,958  | Twist, yarn and thread.....                           | 92,555        |
| Butter and cheese .....                                                     | 1,654,157  | All other manufactures of.....                        | 415,680       |
| Pork (pickled), bacon, lard, live hogs,                                     | 9,245,885  | Total of cotton goods .....                           | 4,933,129     |
| Horses and mules.....                                                       | 66,982     | <i>Flax and Hemp —</i>                                |               |
| Sheep.....                                                                  | 16,305     | Cloth and thread.....                                 | 1,009         |
| Wool .....                                                                  | 81,015     | Bags and all manufactures of.....                     | 4,549         |
| Total products of animals ....                                              | 13,153,302 | Wearing apparel .....                                 | 75,945        |
| <i>Vegetable Food —</i>                                                     |            | Combs and buttons .....                               | 38,136        |
| Wheat.....                                                                  | 1,756,848  | Brushes .....                                         | 2,924         |
| Flour.....                                                                  | 11,280,582 | Billiard tables.....                                  | 701           |
| Indian corn.....                                                            | 7,966,369  | Umbrellas and parasols.....                           | 5,800         |
| Indian meal .....                                                           | 1,169,625  | Leather and morocco skins not sold<br>per pound ..... | 9,427         |
| Rye meal .....                                                              | 218,248    | Fire engines and apparatus.....                       | 453           |
| Rye, oats, and other small grain and<br>pulse .....                         | 139,798    | Printing presses and type .....                       | 28,031        |
| Biscuit, or ship bread.....                                                 | 364,318    | Musical instruments.....                              | 28,713        |
| Potatoes .....                                                              | 83,313     | Books and maps.....                                   | 94,427        |
| Apples .....                                                                | 93,904     | Paper and stationery.....                             | 86,827        |
| Rice.....                                                                   | 2,569,362  | Paints and varnish .....                              | 55,145        |
| Total vegetable food.....                                                   | 25,642,362 | Vinegar .....                                         | 14,036        |
| Tobacco.....                                                                | 5,804,207  | Earthen and stone ware.....                           | 10,632        |
| Cotton.....                                                                 | 66,396,967 | <i>Manufactures of</i>                                |               |
| Hemp .....                                                                  | 8,458      | Glass .....                                           | 101,419       |
| <i>All other Agricultural Products —</i>                                    |            | Tin.....                                              | 13,143        |
| Flax-seed .....                                                             | 4          | Pewter and lead.....                                  | 13,196        |
| Hops .....                                                                  | 29,123     | Marble and stone.....                                 | 20,282        |
| Brown sugar.....                                                            | 24,606     | Gold and silver, and gold-leaf.....                   | 4,502         |
| Indigo.....                                                                 | 49         | Gold and silver coin.....                             | 956,374       |
|                                                                             | 54,082     | Artificial flowers and jewelry.....                   | 8,557         |
| <b>MANUFACTURES.</b>                                                        |            | Molasses.....                                         | 7,442         |
| Soap and tallow candles.....                                                | 627,280    | Trunks .....                                          | 5,099         |
| Leather, boots and shoes.....                                               | 151,774    | Brick and lime.....                                   | 8,671         |
| Household furniture.....                                                    | 237,342    | Salt .....                                            | 82,972        |
| Coaches and other carriages.....                                            | 95,923     | Coal .....                                            | 40,396        |
|                                                                             |            | Lead .....                                            | 30,198        |
|                                                                             |            | Ice.....                                              | 95,027        |
|                                                                             |            | <i>Articles not enumerated —</i>                      |               |
|                                                                             |            | Manufactured .....                                    | 1,408,273     |
|                                                                             |            | Other articles .....                                  | 769,557       |
|                                                                             |            | Total .....                                           | \$132,666,955 |

DOMESTIC EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1850.

|                                         |             |                                              |               |
|-----------------------------------------|-------------|----------------------------------------------|---------------|
| Products of the sea.....                | \$2,324,883 | Cotton.....                                  | 71,984,616    |
| Lumber and naval stores.....            | 3,739,728   | All other agricultural products.....         | 175,402       |
| Manufactures of wool.....               | 1,948,752   | Manuf. of cotton, iron, &c., enumerated,     | 11,327,880    |
| Pot and pearl ashes.....                | 572,870     | Manufactures not enumerated.....             | 3,869,071     |
| Products of the forest.....             | 1,181,153   | Coal, ice, and all other articles but coin.. | 953,664       |
| Pork, bacon, lard and live hogs.....    | 7,550,287   | Total domestic merchandise .....             | \$134,900,232 |
| Other animal products.....              | 1,783,638   | Exports of foreign merchandise.....          | 9,475,493     |
| Butter, cheese, wheat and wheat flour.  | 8,957,778   | Total exports of the United States.....      | \$144,375,725 |
| All other grain, meal and ship-bread... | 5,324,194   | Imports, exclusive of specie .....           | \$173,507,521 |
| Potatoes and apples.....                | 124,307     |                                              |               |
| Rice and tobacco.....                   | 12,585,280  |                                              |               |





| Species of Merchandise.                     | Value.    | Species of Merchandise.                  | Value.      |
|---------------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------------------|-------------|
| <i>Brass, and Manufactures of—</i>          |           | <i>Wares—</i>                            |             |
| In pigs, bars, and old.....                 | \$7,504   | China, porcelain, earthen, and stone..   | \$2,261,331 |
| Wire.....                                   | 4,872     | Plated or gilt.....                      | 159,619     |
| Sheet and rolled.....                       | 8,105     | Japanned.....                            | 62,269      |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 154,540   | Britannia.....                           | 17,272      |
| <i>Tin, and Manufactures of—</i>            |           | Silver or plated ware.....               | 5,440       |
| In pigs and bars.....                       | 575,762   | <i>Saddlery—</i>                         |             |
| In plates and sheets.....                   | 2,292,428 | Common, tinned, or japanned.....         | 67,749      |
| Foil.....                                   | 11,208    | Plated, brass, or polished steel.....    | 117,726     |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 23,042    | <i>Furs—</i>                             |             |
| <i>Lead, and Manufactures of—</i>           |           | Undressed, on the skin.....              | 249,156     |
| Pig, bar, sheet, and old.....               | 85,987    | Hatters' furs, dressed or undressed, not |             |
| Shot.....                                   | 36        | on the skin.....                         | 256,656     |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 854       | Dressed, on the skin.....                | 84,976      |
| <i>Pewter—</i>                              |           | Hats, caps, muffs, and tippets.....      | 3,842       |
| Old.....                                    | 2,453     | Manufactures of, not specified.....      | 6,842       |
| Manufactures of.....                        | 1,503     | <i>Wood, Manufactures of—</i>            |             |
| <i>Manufactures of Gold and Silver—</i>     |           | Cabinet and household furniture.....     | 52,195      |
| Laces, galloons, tassels, &c.....           | 40,290    | Cedar, mahogany, rose, satin.....        | 32,695      |
| Epaulettes and wings.....                   | 566       | Other manufactures of.....               | 166,850     |
| Gold and silver leaf.....                   | 263       | <i>Wood, unmanufactured—</i>             |             |
| Jewelry, real, or imitations of.....        | 281,385   | Cedar, grenadilla, mahogany, rose, and   |             |
| Gems, diamonds, pearls, &c., set.....       | 3,242     | satin.....                               | 324,620     |
| " " otherwise.....                          | 106,014   | Fire-wood, and other, not specified....  | 227,716     |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 29,043    | Dye-wood, in sticks.....                 | 549,149     |
| Glaziers' diamonds.....                     | 2,374     | <i>Bark of the Cork-tree—</i>            |             |
| Clocks.....                                 | 51,543    | Corks.....                               | 120,413     |
| Chronometers.....                           | 13,046    | Unmanufactured.....                      | 14,573      |
| Watches, and parts of.....                  | 1,676,606 | Other manufactures of.....               | 11          |
| Metallic pens.....                          | 74,050    | <i>Marble—</i>                           |             |
| Square wire for umbrellas.....              | 26,108    | Manufactures of.....                     | 23,883      |
| Pins in packs and otherwise.....            | 8,184     | Unmanufactured.....                      | 110,963     |
| Buttons, metal.....                         | 35,239    | Quicksilver.....                         | 26,974      |
| Other buttons, and button moulds.....       | 365,987   | Brushes and brooms.....                  | 146,063     |
| <i>Glass—</i>                               |           | Black-lead pencils.....                  | 32,187      |
| Silvered and in frames.....                 | 150,537   | Slates of all kinds.....                 | 152,030     |
| Paintings on glass, &c.....                 | 14,488    | Raw hides and skins.....                 | 3,507,300   |
| Polished plate.....                         | 282,101   | <i>Manufactured articles—</i>            |             |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 88,231    | Boots and booties of silk or satin.....  | 100         |
| Cut.....                                    | 45,563    | Shoes and slippers.....                  | 305         |
| Plain.....                                  | 37,903    | " " prunella, lasting, &c.....           | 4           |
| Watch-crystals.....                         | 6,646     | India-rubber.....                        | 52,335      |
| Glasses or pebbles for spectacles.....      | 4,236     | Grass-cloth.....                         | 17,474      |
| Apothecaries' vials, N. by A., 16 oz. each  | 441       | Gunny-bags.....                          | 270,700     |
| Bottles not above two quarts.....           | 61,677    | Umbrellas, parasols, &c., silk.....      | 33,934      |
| Demijohns.....                              | 16,881    | " all other.....                         | 1           |
| Window-glass, 8 by 10, or less.....         | 2,946     | <i>Unmanufactured articles—</i>          |             |
| " 10 by 12, ".....                          | 112,176   | Flaxseed or linseed.....                 | 273,084     |
| " above 10 by 12.....                       | 24,217    | Angora, Thibet, and other goats' hair    |             |
| <i>Paper, and Manufactures of—</i>          |           | or mohair.....                           | 105         |
| Antiquarian, imperial, super-royal, &c..... | 278       | Wool.....                                | 1,177,247   |
| Medium, cap, demy, and other writing.....   | 52,110    | <i>Wines, in casks—</i>                  |             |
| Folio and quarto post.....                  | 64,624    | Burgundy.....                            | 4,866       |
| Bank and bank-note paper.....               | 33,858    | Madeira.....                             | 105,302     |
| Binders' boards, box, pressing, and         |           | Sherry and San Lucar.....                | 128,510     |
| paste boards.....                           | 104       | Port.....                                | 272,700     |
| Copperplate printing and drawing....        | 6,165     | Claret.....                              | 263,836     |
| Sheathing paper.....                        | 3         | Teneriffe and other Canary.....          | 22,643      |
| Playing cards.....                          | 7,722     | Fayal and other Azores.....              | 5,108       |
| Papier mache, articles and wares of..       | 31,710    | Sicily and other Mediterranean.....      | 32,231      |
| Paper hangings.....                         | 76,525    | Austrian and other German.....           | 2,832       |
| Paper boxes and fancy boxes.....            | 65,030    | Red wines, not enumerated.....           | 221,177     |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 51,994    | White wines, ".....                      | 210,139     |
| Blank books.....                            | 5,800     | <i>Wines, in bottles—</i>                |             |
| <i>Books, printed—</i>                      |           | Burgundy.....                            | 3,184       |
| In Hebrew.....                              | 126       | Champagne.....                           | 439,508     |
| In Latin and Greek.....                     | 2,925     | Madeira.....                             | 759         |
| In English.....                             | 284,935   | Sherry.....                              | 803         |
| In other languages.....                     | 109,951   | Port.....                                | 1,281       |
| Periodicals and illustrated newspapers,     |           | Claret.....                              | 68,636      |
| Periodicals and other works in course       |           | All other.....                           | 32,642      |
| of publication.....                         | 1,943     | <i>Foreign Distilled Spirits—</i>        |             |
| <i>Leather—</i>                             |           | Brandy.....                              | 1,347,514   |
| Tanned, bend, and sole.....                 | 807       | From grain.....                          | 327,967     |
| Tanned and dressed upper.....               | 12,096    | From other materials.....                | 145,784     |
| Skins, tanned and dressed.....              | 410,504   | Cordials.....                            | 25,323      |
| Skins, tanned, not dressed.....             | 11,358    | <i>Beer, Ale, and Porter—</i>            |             |
| <i>Manufactures of Leather—</i>             |           | In casks.....                            | 16,110      |
| Skivers.....                                | 55,903    | In bottles.....                          | 134,431     |
| Boots and booties, for men and women,       |           | Vinegar.....                             | 4,065       |
| Shoes and pumps, for men and women,         |           | Molasses.....                            | 2,778,174   |
| Boots, booties, and shoes for children.     |           | <i>Oil of Foreign Fisheries—</i>         |             |
| Gloves for men, women, and children..       | 772,217   | Spermaceti.....                          | 58          |
| Manufactures of, not specified.....         | 173,143   | Whale and other fish.....                | 12,864      |



| Species of Merchandise.         | Value.    | Species of Merchandise.                 | Value.      |
|---------------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------------|-------------|
| Whalebone.....                  | \$20      | Copperas.....                           | \$10,131    |
| Oil—                            |           | Sulphate of quinine.....                | 7,069       |
| Olive, in casks.....            | 55,787    | Vitriol, blue or Roman.....             | 9,628       |
| Castor.....                     | 3,584     | Oil of.....                             | 61          |
| Linseed.....                    | 487,920   | Chloride of lime or bleaching powder... | 78,002      |
| Rapeseed.....                   | 59        | Soda ash.....                           | 687,965     |
| Spirits of turpentine.....      | 1         | Sulphate of barytes.....                | 5,983       |
| Tea.....                        | 29,863    | Tobacco—                                |             |
| Coffee.....                     | 2,091     | Unmanufactured.....                     | 276,674     |
| Cocoa.....                      | 123,946   | Snuff.....                              | 358         |
| Chocolate.....                  | 1,453     | Cigars.....                             | 1,439,765   |
| Sugar—                          |           | Manufactured, other than snuff and      |             |
| Brown.....                      | 7,793,616 | cigars.....                             | 3,509       |
| White, clayed, or powdered..... | 221,206   | Paints—                                 |             |
| Loaf and other, refined.....    | 34,073    | Dry ochre.....                          | 33,725      |
| Candy.....                      | 461       | Ochre, in oil.....                      | 4,131       |
| Syrup of sugar-cane.....        | 378       | Red and white lead.....                 | 19,703      |
| Fruits—                         |           | Whiting and Paris white.....            | 2,755       |
| Almonds.....                    | 152,979   | Litharge.....                           | 249         |
| Currants.....                   | 99,576    | Sugar of lead.....                      | 858         |
| Prunes and plums.....           | 48,719    | Cordage—                                |             |
| Figs.....                       | 62,410    | Tarred and cables.....                  | 129,120     |
| Dates.....                      | 7,112     | Untarred.....                           | 17,290      |
| Raisins.....                    | 622,905   | Twine.....                              | 34,378      |
| Nuts.....                       | 71,331    | Seines.....                             | 182         |
| Spices—                         |           | Hemp, unmanufactured.....               | 491,633     |
| Mace.....                       | 22,090    | Manilla, sun, and other hemp of India.. | 196,634     |
| Nutmegs.....                    | 219,349   | Jute, sisal-grass, coir, &c.....        | 356,406     |
| Cinnamon.....                   | 8,593     | Cordilla, or tow of hemp or flax.....   | 156,498     |
| Cloves.....                     | 56,594    | Flax, unmanufactured.....               | 127,859     |
| Pepper, black.....              | 65,253    | Rags of all kinds.....                  | 524,755     |
| red.....                        | 11,556    | Salt.....                               | 1,438,931   |
| Pimento.....                    | 191,197   | Coal.....                               | 409,282     |
| Cassia.....                     | 74,193    | Bread-stuffs—                           |             |
| Ginger, in root.....            | 73,193    | Wheat.....                              | 20,332      |
| Campbor—                        |           | Barley.....                             | 1,641       |
| Crude.....                      | 39,517    | Rye.....                                | 162         |
| Refined.....                    | 16        | Oats.....                               | 27,067      |
| Candles—                        |           | Wheat-flour.....                        | 76,272      |
| Wax and spermaceti.....         | 1,245     | Oat-meal.....                           | 1,315       |
| Tallow.....                     | 31        | Potatoes.....                           | 20,602      |
| Cheese.....                     | 22,895    | Fish—                                   |             |
| Soap, other than perfumed.....  | 74,370    | Dried or smoked.....                    | 43,709      |
| Tallow.....                     | 1,825     | Salmon.....                             | 31,290      |
| Starch.....                     | 1,629     | Mackerel.....                           | 465,286     |
| Pearl barley.....               | 593       | Herrings and shad.....                  | 29,761      |
| Butter.....                     | 29,804    | All other.....                          | 13,097      |
| Lard.....                       | 14        | Merchandise not enumerated—             |             |
| Beef and pork.....              | 1,515     | At 5 per cent.....                      | 1,702,012   |
| Hams and other bacon.....       | 2,268     | At 10 ".....                            | 1,030,131   |
| Bristles.....                   | 88,265    | At 15 ".....                            | 286,078     |
| Saltpetre—                      |           | At 20 ".....                            | 2,893,652   |
| Crude.....                      | 436,250   | At 25 ".....                            | 155,090     |
| Refined, or partly refined..... | 25,815    | At 30 ".....                            | 1,641,737   |
| Indigo.....                     | 805,863   | At 40 ".....                            | 141,741     |
| Wood or pastel.....             | 3,136     | Value of Merchandise paying Duties ad   |             |
| Ivory and bone black.....       | 1,481     | valorem.....                            | 125,479,774 |
| Opium.....                      | 190,316   | Free of Duty.....                       | 22,377,665  |
| Glue.....                       | 12,543    | Total.....                              | 147,857,439 |
| Gunpowder.....                  | 43        |                                         |             |
| Alum.....                       | 2,004     |                                         |             |

## VALUE OF BREADSTUFFS, ETC., EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The aggregate value of Breadstuffs and Provisions exported annually from 1821 to 1850, inclusive.

| Years.     | Value.       | Years.    | Value.       | Years.     | Value.        |
|------------|--------------|-----------|--------------|------------|---------------|
| 1821.....  | \$12,341,901 | 1831..... | \$17,538,227 | 1841.....  | \$17,196,102  |
| 1822.....  | 13,886,856   | 1832..... | 12,424,703   | 1842.....  | 16,902,876    |
| 1823.....  | 13,707,847   | 1833..... | 14,209,123   | 1843*..... | 11,204,123    |
| 1824.....  | 15,059,848   | 1834..... | 11,524,024   | 1844.....  | 17,970,135    |
| 1825.....  | 11,634,449   | 1835..... | 12,009,399   | 1845.....  | 16,743,421    |
| 1826.....  | 11,303,493   | 1836..... | 10,614,130   | 1846.....  | 27,701,121    |
| 1827.....  | 11,685,556   | 1837..... | 9,588,359    | 1847.....  | 68,701,921    |
| 1828.....  | 11,461,144   | 1838..... | 9,639,450    | 1848.....  | 37,472,751    |
| 1829.....  | 13,131,858   | 1839..... | 14,147,779   | 1849.....  | 39,155,507    |
| 1830.....  | 12,075,030   | 1840..... | 19,067,535   | 1850.....  | 26,051,273    |
| Total..... |              |           |              |            | \$535,207,285 |

\* For nine months ending June 30th, 1843.

# COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

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## COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH ALL NATIONS.

Imports from and Exports to Foreign Countries, during the year ending June 30, 1849.

| Countries.                                  | Value of Imports. | Value of Exports. |                  |             |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------|
|                                             |                   | Domestic Produce. | Foreign Produce. | Total.      |
| Russia, . . . . .                           | \$840,238         | \$887,557         | \$197,947        | \$1,135,504 |
| Prussia, . . . . .                          | 17,687            | 34,703            | 9,516            | 44,219      |
| Sweden and Norway, . . . . .                | 731,846           | 725,281           | 38,506           | 763,787     |
| Swedish West Indies, . . . . .              | 15,982            | 95,128            | 737              | 95,865      |
| Denmark, . . . . .                          | 19,204            | 55,138            | -                | 55,138      |
| Danish West Indies, . . . . .               | 339,141           | 727,197           | 54,149           | 781,346     |
| Hanse Towns, . . . . .                      | 7,742,864         | 2,710,248         | 604,682          | 3,314,930   |
| Hanover, . . . . .                          | -                 | 8,496             | 85               | 8,581       |
| Holland, . . . . .                          | 1,501,643         | 2,155,323         | 242,027          | 2,397,355   |
| Dutch East Indies, . . . . .                | 854,528           | 280,823           | 54,113           | 334,941     |
| Dutch West Indies, . . . . .                | 453,099           | 317,066           | 50,252           | 367,318     |
| Dutch Guiana, . . . . .                     | 58,281            | 104,013           | 62               | 104,065     |
| Belgium, . . . . .                          | 1,844,293         | 2,443,064         | 288,243          | 2,731,307   |
| England, . . . . .                          | 58,818,425        | 69,161,992        | 1,880,878        | 71,042,870  |
| Scotland, . . . . .                         | 1,859,820         | 3,549,960         | 58,472           | 3,608,422   |
| Ireland, . . . . .                          | 376,793           | 3,916,342         | 22,526           | 3,988,868   |
| Gibraltar, . . . . .                        | 1,193             | 723,819           | 78,467           | 802,286     |
| Malta, . . . . .                            | 8,405             | 51,233            | 62,734           | 118,967     |
| British East Indies, . . . . .              | 2,086,254         | 382,962           | 76,562           | 409,524     |
| Cape of Good Hope, . . . . .                | 71,293            | 94,422            | -                | 94,422      |
| Mauritius, . . . . .                        | -                 | 21,731            | 5,000            | 26,731      |
| Honduras, . . . . .                         | 262,417           | 191,347           | 34,620           | 225,967     |
| British Guiana, . . . . .                   | 25,520            | 662,315           | 3,759            | 666,074     |
| British West Indies, . . . . .              | 997,865           | 3,935,834         | 203,097          | 4,138,931   |
| Canada, . . . . .                           | 1,481,082         | 2,320,323         | 1,914,401        | 4,234,724   |
| British American Colonies, . . . . .        | 1,345,798         | 3,611,783         | 257,760          | 3,869,543   |
| Other British Colonies, . . . . .           | 8,613             | -                 | -                | -           |
| France on the Atlantic, . . . . .           | 23,209,878        | 11,646,612        | 2,818,303        | 14,464,915  |
| France on the Mediterranean, . . . . .      | 1,153,905         | 877,147           | 168,521          | 1,045,668   |
| French West Indies, . . . . .               | 71,469            | 180,731           | 14,267           | 194,998     |
| Miquelon and French Fisheries, . . . . .    | -                 | 20,370            | -                | 20,370      |
| French Guiana, . . . . .                    | 23,417            | 46,161            | -                | 46,161      |
| Bourbon (French East Indies), . . . . .     | -                 | 9,473             | -                | 9,473       |
| Spain on the Atlantic, . . . . .            | 313,490           | 169,071           | 31,479           | 200,550     |
| Spain on the Mediterranean, . . . . .       | 1,005,687         | 1,619,423         | 19,827           | 1,639,250   |
| Teneriffe and other Canaries, . . . . .     | 38,919            | 17,840            | 654              | 18,494      |
| Manilla and Philippine Islands, . . . . .   | 1,127,114         | 137,868           | 8,669            | 146,537     |
| Cuba, . . . . .                             | 10,659,956        | 4,641,145         | 668,063          | 5,309,213   |
| Other Spanish West Indies, . . . . .        | 1,964,861         | 523,292           | 33,234           | 556,526     |
| Portugal, . . . . .                         | 322,220           | 169,721           | 6,273            | 175,994     |
| Madeira, . . . . .                          | 73,759            | 117,878           | 759              | 118,637     |
| Fayal and other Azores, . . . . .           | 17,052            | 14,204            | 1,839            | 16,043      |
| Cape de Verde Islands, . . . . .            | 1,853             | 62,647            | 3,815            | 64,462      |
| Italy, . . . . .                            | 1,550,896         | 811,450           | 293,419          | 1,104,869   |
| Sicily, . . . . .                           | 530,244           | 24,359            | 4,854            | 29,213      |
| Sardinia, . . . . .                         | 42,588            | 460,950           | 21,414           | 482,364     |
| Tuscany, . . . . .                          | -                 | 30,076            | -                | 30,076      |
| Trieste and other Austrian Ports, . . . . . | 409,178           | 942,489           | 464,376          | 1,406,865   |
| Turkey, . . . . .                           | 374,064           | 193,876           | 85,120           | 278,996     |
| Ionian Islands, . . . . .                   | 291               | -                 | -                | -           |
| Hayti, . . . . .                            | 901,724           | 582,577           | 70,015           | 602,592     |
| Mexico, . . . . .                           | 2,216,719         | 1,047,999         | 1,042,869        | 2,090,868   |
| Central Republics of America, . . . . .     | 56,017            | 112,480           | 23,739           | 136,219     |
| New Granada, . . . . .                      | 158,960           | 244,460           | 53,324           | 297,784     |
| Venezuela, . . . . .                        | 1,413,096         | 431,421           | 106,213          | 537,634     |
| Brazil, . . . . .                           | 8,494,368         | 2,838,380         | 264,597          | 3,102,977   |
| Cisplatine Republic, . . . . .              | 79,924            | 134,638           | 13,089           | 147,727     |
| Argentine Republic, . . . . .               | 1,709,827         | 595,518           | 172,076          | 767,594     |
| Chili, . . . . .                            | 1,817,723         | 1,722,457         | 294,643          | 2,017,100   |
| Peru, . . . . .                             | 446,953           | 93,195            | 18,041           | 111,236     |
| China, . . . . .                            | 5,513,785         | 1,460,945         | 122,279          | 1,583,224   |
| West Indies generally, . . . . .            | -                 | 106,329           | 2,395            | 108,724     |
| South America generally, . . . . .          | 16,159            | 85,215            | 8,019            | 93,234      |
| Europe generally, . . . . .                 | -                 | 18,588            | -                | 18,588      |
| Asia generally, . . . . .                   | 209,669           | 344,436           | 19,375           | 363,811     |
| Africa generally, . . . . .                 | 495,752           | 676,769           | 31,642           | 708,411     |
| South Seas and Pacific Ocean, . . . . .     | 85,318            | 396,660           | 63,063           | 399,728     |
| Sandwich Islands, . . . . .                 | 43,875            | -                 | -                | -           |
| Total, . . . . .                            | 147,857,439       | 132,666,955       | 13,088,865       | 145,755,820 |

| Exported in 1850.              | Value.       | Imported in 1850.               | Value.       |
|--------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------|--------------|
| Cotton Manufactures, . . . . . | \$ 4,734,424 | Manufactures of Iron, . . . . . | \$16,232,013 |
| Cotton, . . . . .              | 71,984,616   | Iron, . . . . .                 | 9,254,542    |
| Tobacco, . . . . .             | 9,951,023    | Cotton Goods, . . . . .         | 19,685,436   |
| Rice, . . . . .                | 2,631,557    | Woollen Goods, . . . . .        | 16,900,916   |



## IMPORTS, EXPORTS, CONSUMPTION, AND TONNAGE OF THE UNITED STATES.

*A Statement exhibiting the total Value of Imports, and Imports consumed in the United States, during each fiscal year, from 1821 to 1850: showing, also, the Value of the Domestic and Foreign Exports, exclusive of Specie, and the Tonnage employed, during the same period: derived from a Statement made up at the Register's Office, Treasury Department, November 12th, 1850.*

| Years. | Total Imports. | Imports consumed, exclusive of specie. | Domestic produce exported, exclusive of specie. | Foreign merchandise exported, exclusive of specie. | Total exports. | Tonnage.  |
|--------|----------------|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|----------------|-----------|
| 1821   | \$62,585,724   | \$43,696,405                           | \$48,671,394                                    | \$10,824,429                                       | \$64,974,882   | 1,298,958 |
| 1822   | 83,241,541     | 68,367,425                             | 49,879,079                                      | 11,504,270                                         | 72,160,281     | 1,324,699 |
| 1823   | 77,579,267     | 51,308,936                             | 47,155,408                                      | 21,172,435                                         | 74,699,030     | 1,336,566 |
| 1824   | 80,549,007     | 53,846,567                             | 50,649,500                                      | 18,321,605                                         | 75,986,667     | 1,339,163 |
| 1825   | 96,340,075     | 66,395,722                             | 66,944,745                                      | 23,793,588                                         | 99,585,388     | 1,423,112 |
| 1826   | 84,974,477     | 57,652,577                             | 52,449,855                                      | 20,440,934                                         | 77,595,322     | 1,534,191 |
| 1827   | 79,484,063     | 54,901,108                             | 57,878,117                                      | 16,431,890                                         | 82,324,827     | 1,620,608 |
| 1828   | 88,509,824     | 66,975,475                             | 49,976,632                                      | 14,044,648                                         | 72,264,686     | 1,741,392 |
| 1829   | 74,492,527     | 54,741,571                             | 55,087,307                                      | 12,347,344                                         | 72,358,671     | 1,260,798 |
| 1830   | 70,876,620     | 49,575,099                             | 58,524,878                                      | 12,145,857                                         | 73,849,508     | 1,191,776 |
| 1831   | 103,191,124    | 82,808,110                             | 59,218,583                                      | 13,077,069                                         | 81,300,583     | 1,267,847 |
| 1832   | 101,029,266    | 75,327,688                             | 61,726,529                                      | 19,794,074                                         | 87,176,943     | 1,439,450 |
| 1833   | 108,118,311    | 83,470,067                             | 69,950,856                                      | 17,577,876                                         | 90,140,433     | 1,606,151 |
| 1834   | 126,521,332    | 86,973,147                             | 80,623,662                                      | 21,033,553                                         | 104,336,973    | 1,758,907 |
| 1835   | 149,895,742    | 122,007,974                            | 100,459,481                                     | 14,756,321                                         | 121,698,577    | 1,824,940 |
| 1836   | 189,980,035    | 158,811,392                            | 106,570,912                                     | 17,767,762                                         | 128,663,040    | 1,882,103 |
| 1837   | 140,989,217    | 113,310,571                            | 94,280,825                                      | 17,162,232                                         | 117,419,376    | 1,896,686 |
| 1838   | 113,717,404    | 86,552,598                             | 95,560,880                                      | 9,417,690                                          | 708,486,616    | 1,995,640 |
| 1839   | 162,092,132    | 145,370,818                            | 101,625,533                                     | 10,626,140                                         | 121,028,416    | 2,096,380 |
| 1840   | 107,141,519    | 86,250,335                             | 111,660,561                                     | 12,008,371                                         | 132,085,946    | 2,180,774 |
| 1841   | 127,146,177    | 114,776,809                            | 108,686,236                                     | 8,181,235                                          | 121,851,503    | 2,130,744 |
| 1842   | 100,162,087    | 87,906,813                             | 91,799,242                                      | 8,078,753                                          | 104,691,594    | 2,092,391 |
| 1843*  | 64,753,799     | 37,294,129                             | 77,686,354                                      | 5,139,335                                          | 84,346,480     | 2,153,603 |
| 1844   | 108,435,035    | 96,390,543                             | 99,531,774                                      | 6,214,058                                          | 111,200,046    | 2,280,695 |
| 1845   | 117,254,564    | 105,599,541                            | 98,465,330                                      | 7,564,781                                          | 114,646,096    | 2,417,002 |
| 1846   | 121,691,797    | 110,048,859                            | 101,718,042                                     | 7,865,206                                          | 113,488,516    | 2,562,085 |
| 1847   | 146,545,938    | 116,257,595                            | 150,574,844                                     | 9,160,754                                          | 152,648,622    | 2,839,046 |
| 1848   | 154,998,928    | 140,651,902                            | 130,203,709                                     | 7,985,802                                          | 154,032,131    | 3,164,042 |
| 1849   | 147,857,439    | 132,565,108                            | 131,710,081                                     | 8,641,091                                          | 146,756,820    | 3,534,015 |
| 1850   | 178,136,318    | 164,032,033                            | 134,900,232                                     | 9,475,493                                          | 151,898,720    | 3,535,454 |

\* During nine months ending June 30th, 1843.

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF EACH STATE, DURING THE YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1849.

| States.               | Value of Exports. |                  |               | Value of Imports.    |                     |               |
|-----------------------|-------------------|------------------|---------------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------|
|                       | Domestic Produce. | Foreign Produce. | Total.        | In American Vessels. | In Foreign Vessels. | Total.        |
| Maine.....            | \$1,279,393       | \$7,288          | \$1,286,681   | \$577,403            | \$144,006           | \$721,409     |
| New Hampshire.....    | 5,852             | 26               | 5,878         | 51,029               | 13,322              | 64,351        |
| Vermont.....          | 299,938           | 388,931          | 688,869       | 147,721              | .....               | 147,721       |
| Massachusetts.....    | 8,174,667         | 2,090,195        | 10,264,862    | 18,337,959           | 6,377,958           | 24,745,917    |
| Rhode Island.....     | 172,691           | 5,461            | 178,152       | 290,147              | 7,331               | 297,478       |
| Connecticut.....      | 264,000           | .....            | 264,000       | 220,350              | 14,393              | 234,743       |
| New York.....         | 36,738,215        | 9,224,885        | 45,963,100    | 76,148,308           | 16,419,061          | 92,567,369    |
| New Jersey.....       | 355               | 8                | 363           | 3,360                | 893                 | 4,253         |
| Pennsylvania.....     | 4,850,872         | 492,549          | 5,343,421     | 10,008,073           | 637,427             | 10,645,500    |
| Delaware.....         | 37,350            | 379              | 38,229        | 898                  | 502                 | 1,400         |
| Maryland.....         | 7,786,695         | 213,965          | 8,000,660     | 4,618,219            | 363,512             | 4,976,731     |
| District of Columbia, | 111,607           | .....            | 111,607       | 35,668               | .....               | 35,668        |
| Virginia.....         | 3,369,422         | 4,316            | 3,373,738     | 223,218              | 18,717              | 241,935       |
| North Carolina.....   | 270,076           | .....            | 270,076       | 105,975              | 7,171               | 113,146       |
| South Carolina.....   | 9,699,875         | 1,301            | 9,701,176     | 996,168              | 479,527             | 1,475,695     |
| Georgia.....          | 6,857,806         | .....            | 6,857,806     | 176,437              | 194,587             | 371,024       |
| Florida.....          | 2,518,027         | .....            | 2,518,027     | 42,811               | 20,400              | 63,211        |
| Alabama.....          | 12,824,725        | .....            | 12,823,725    | 108,913              | 548,234             | 657,147       |
| Louisiana.....        | 36,957,118        | 654,549          | 37,611,667    | 7,853,664            | 2,197,033           | 10,050,697    |
| Mississippi.....      | .....             | .....            | .....         | 2,433                | .....               | 2,433         |
| Tennessee.....        | .....             | .....            | .....         | 15,145               | .....               | 15,145        |
| Missouri.....         | .....             | .....            | .....         | 130,382              | .....               | 130,382       |
| Ohio.....             | 149,724           | .....            | 149,724       | 137,552              | 12,287              | 149,839       |
| Kentucky.....         | .....             | .....            | .....         | 79,738               | .....               | 79,738        |
| Michigan.....         | 127,844           | 5,007            | 132,851       | 98,141               | .....               | 98,141        |
| Illinois.....         | 88,412            | 6                | 88,417        | 5,173                | 4,593               | 9,766         |
| Texas.....            | 82,891            | .....            | 82,791        | 2,267                | 14,333              | 16,600        |
| Total.....            | \$132,686,955     | \$13,088,865     | \$145,755,820 | \$120,382,152        | \$27,475,287        | \$147,857,439 |

The magnitude of a portion of the internal trade of the United States is exhibited in the official aggregate valuation of the lake trade for 1848. The imports and exports amounted to \$186,484,905. The aggregate tonnage employed on the lakes is equal to 203,041 tons; of which 167,137 is American, and 35,904 British. The commerce of lakes Erie, Huron, Michigan, Ontario, Champlain, and St. Clair, is as follows:

|                         |                      |                            |                           |                             |                          |
|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Erie,<br>\$115,785,048. | Huron,<br>\$848,152. | Michigan,<br>\$24,320,481. | Ontario,<br>\$28,141,000. | Champlain,<br>\$16,750,700. | St. Clair,<br>\$639,524. |
|-------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|

The passenger trade of the lakes is estimated at \$1,000,000. The aggregate value of the tonnage of Lake Erie is \$5,308,085; of Lake Huron, \$75,000; and of Lake Michigan, \$564,435.

**PRODUCTIVE INDUSTRY.**—The United States have made an astonishing progress in industry and wealth; but the present is insignificant in comparison with the future greatness they are destined to attain from their unparalleled resources. An intelligent, enterprising, and free population, possessing the useful arts of the most improved society, with an extent of fertile territory unequaled in the Old World, and penetrated throughout by such immense lines of navigable communication, and railroad facilities, cannot fail, at no very distant period, to leave every other nation behind them.

Agriculture has ever been the staple pursuit of the North Americans, and agricultural products have always constituted their principal articles of export. The first exports of the early colonists were the natural products of the forest: firs, lumber, pitch and tar; pot and pearl ashes, with some cattle and provisions, constituted the chief articles of trade from the northern provinces in the early part of the eighteenth century; but rice and tobacco had even then become important items of exportation from the southern colonies. At a late period, wheat became the great staple of the middle and western States, and cotton that of the more tropical sections of the country. Flax and hemp thrive, particularly in the rich soil of Kentucky and Missouri. Maize being suited to a great variety of soils and situations, is so universally cultivated, as to have received the name of "corn," as a distinctive appellation. Oats for horses, and rye for distillation, are the prevalent species of grain in the northern States, while in the extreme south the sugar cane is found to flourish, and to supply almost all the demand for this article for home consumption. Grapes for wine and beets for sugar are articles of prospective culture, regarding the value of which sanguine expectations are entertained. Cotton, the great staple of the United States, is raised in small quantities in Virginia and Kentucky, but is chiefly produced in the country further south. It is the produce of the herbaceous or annual cotton plant, and is of two kinds, the Sea Island or long staple, and the Upland or short staple. The former, which is of a superior quality, is grown chiefly in the Carolinas and Georgia, on the Atlantic, and in some parts of the State of Texas. Cotton was first sown in the United States in or about 1787, and was first exported in small quantities in 1790: since then its culture has become enormous. Tobacco has been the staple of Virginia and Maryland since their first settlement, and is also extensively grown in Kentucky, Ohio, Missouri, and other States; beside the quantities required for domestic use, large amounts are exported. The sugar-cane is cultivated with success in Louisiana,



Florida, and Texas. Rice was first cultivated in South Carolina in 1694, since which time its culture has been so successful, that, in addition to supplying the home consumption, it affords an annual surplus for the purposes of commerce. Indigo was formerly produced in large quantities in the Carolinas and Georgia, but since the introduction of cotton, the cultivation of this plant has almost ceased. The following will afford a general view of the agricultural wealth of the United States:

|                                              |                      |                  |                    |
|----------------------------------------------|----------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| LIVE STOCK — Estimated for 1850, Com. Pat.   |                      | Buckwheat .....  | 12,528,000 bushels |
| Horses and Mules.....                        | 6,000,000 head.      | Indian Corn..... | 588,150,000 "      |
| Neat Cattle.....                             | 19,000,000 "         | VARIOUS CROPS —  |                    |
| Sheep.....                                   | 30,000,000 "         | Potatoes.....    | 114,475,000 "      |
| Swine.....                                   | 35,000,000 "         | Hay.....         | 15,735,000 tons.   |
| CEREAL GRAINS — Estimate for 1848, Com. Pat. |                      | Hemp.....        | 20,330 "           |
| Wheat.....                                   | 126,364,600 bushels. | Tobacco.....     | 218,909,000 lbs.   |
| Barley.....                                  | 6,222,050 "          | Cotton.....      | 1,066,000,000 "    |
| Oats.....                                    | 185,500,000 "        | Rice.....        | 119,199,500 "      |
| Rye.....                                     | 32,952,500 "         | Sugar.....       | 200,000,000 "      |

Nearly three-fourths of the labor and capital of the country are employed in agriculture.

During the war of the Revolution some manufactures sprung up in the States; and on the adoption of the Constitution, provision was immediately made for the support of the manufacturing industry of the country, by protecting duties. Under that provision these interests have flourished, and the United States will, no doubt, soon outstrip all other countries in the march to distinction in this branch of industry. From the endless variety of soil and climate, which produce in abundance every species of raw material, the cheap and inexhaustible supply of moving power furnished by the rivers and torrents, combined with the improvements which are daily taking place in machinery, this result is indicated as an unerring destiny. At present, however, the industry of the country is chiefly applied to agriculture, but the progress of manufactures obtains footing day by day, and extend their limits to every part of the country.

The first cotton mill was erected at Providence, Rhode Island, in 1790, and power-looms were introduced at Waltham in 1815. The American cotton stuffs are said to be more substantial and durable than the English, and they are, in consequence, preferred in foreign markets to which they have been carried. They include shirtings, sheetings, and printed calicoes, jeans, carpetings, sail-cloth, &c. The exports of 1850 amounted to \$4,734,424.

The manufacture of woollens has been carried on in families for domestic use, from an early period; but it is only recently that large establishments have been formed for this purpose, most of which are supplied with the most improved machinery.

A new branch of industry has been recently introduced, and is making rapid advances. The various manufactures of gutta percha and caoutchouc embrace some of the most useful and important improvements in the arts and conveniences of life.

The Fisheries have been pursued by the New Englanders with a rare spirit of hardy enterprise, from an early period of the settlement of the country. The whale fishery is prosecuted in the Atlantic Ocean, chiefly to the south of the line, for the black whale, and in the Southern, Indian and Pacific Oceans, for the spermaceti whale. It is estimated that about 45,000 men are employed in the various fisheries, and that the amount of capital employed is 20,000,000 dollars. The vessels engaged in the Pacific

whale fishery are often absent two or three years. Seal oil and furs are also obtained in the Arctic and Antarctic seas; the annual product of which exceeds five million dollars. The cod fishery employs 60,000 tons of small craft, and the produce is estimated at \$1,500,000 yearly. The mackerel fishery is valued at \$2,000,000 annually.

The very general substitution of coal for wood as fuel, and its employment in the manufacture of iron, and in the production of steam and gas, have of late years given an amazing impulse to the trade in this article. Thirty years ago the coal trade of the United States was limited to 365 tons of anthracite, carried from the Lehigh mines to the city of Philadelphia; now the annual production of anthracite exceeds three millions of tons. Indeed, so great and various have the uses of coal become, that, in connection with iron, it may now be considered one of the most important elements of a nation's commercial and manufacturing prosperity.

In the distribution of coal the United States are highly favored. Exclusive of Texas, New Mexico, California, and Oregon, all of which are known to contain coal, the area of coal formations in the United States is estimated to be 133,132 square miles. Nearly the whole of this vast area is occupied by bituminous coal. The total area of the anthracite region of Pennsylvania is estimated at about 400 square miles, yet more tons of fuel are now annually produced from that small area, than from the boundless fields of bituminous coal scattered over twelve States. The annual produce of the coal mines of the United States now amounts to about \$7,000,000, valued at the places of production.

POPULATION.—Although collected from several nations of Europe, and in many cases retaining much of the original stamp, the Americans have a strong national feeling; and with some few exceptions the immigrants soon lose their national peculiarities and character by intermarriages and a common education. In 1847 half a million foreigners landed at the various ports of the Union; but the English language and literature are universally pursued, and the Anglo-Saxon spirit preponderates throughout the heterogeneous mass.

IMMIGRANT STATISTICS FOR 1850.

| States.             | Males.  | Females. | Sex not stated. | Total.  |
|---------------------|---------|----------|-----------------|---------|
| Maine.....          | 2,437   | 1,577    | 235             | 4,248   |
| New Hampshire.....  | 53      | 13       | ...             | 66      |
| Massachusetts.....  | 14,520  | 12,077   | 838             | 26,835  |
| Rhode Island.....   | 100     | 66       | ...             | 166     |
| New York.....       | 107,866 | 77,016   | ...             | 184,882 |
| Pennsylvania.....   | 5,259   | 5,256    | ...             | 10,515  |
| Maryland.....       | 4,406   | 3,178    | ...             | 7,584   |
| Virginia.....       | 27      | 7        | ...             | 34      |
| South Carolina..... | 1,177   | 440      | ...             | 1,617   |
| Georgia.....        | 90      | 61       | ...             | 151     |
| Alabama.....        | 278     | 53       | 282             | 613     |
| Louisiana.....      | 22,101  | 11,979   | ...             | 34,080  |
| Florida.....        | 70      | 63       | ...             | 133     |
| Texas.....          | 393     | 118      | 283             | 794     |
| Total.....          | 158,776 | 111,954  | 1,033           | 271,718 |

"The United States," says an eminent English writer, "were colonized a century later than Spanish America; but their brilliant and rapid progress shows, in a striking light, how much more the prosperity of nations depends on moral than on physical advantages. The North Americans



had no gold mines, and a territory of only indifferent fertility, covered with impenetrable woods: but they brought with them intelligence, industry, a love of freedom, habits of order, and a pure and severe morality. Armed with these gifts of the soul, they have converted the wilderness into a land teeming with life, and smiling with plenty; and they have built up a social system, so preëminently calculated to promote the happiness and moral improvement of mankind, that it has truly become the envy of nations. The characteristic facts in their condition are the non-existence of titles, of privileged classes, of corporations in our sense of the term, of a landed aristocracy, of mendicity except to a very limited extent, and of an endowed church: the cheapness and efficiency of the government, the universality of education, the omnipresence of its periodical press, the high feeling of self-respect which exists in the very humblest classes, and the boundless spirit of enterprise which pervades society from top to bottom. The higher classes are less polished than in England, the middle are, perhaps, less carefully instructed; but the American people, taken collectively, are better educated, and have more intelligence and manliness of character, than any other nation in the world."

The total population of the states and territories is now ascertained to be 23,268,555; and when we consider that this civilized and industrious multitude exists in a region which, only two centuries ago, supported only a few hundred thousands of half-clad and half-fed savages, and look at the rapid and steady increase which has marked its progress, we see a new and most striking phenomena in the history of the human race. Though there has been a great accession of numbers by immigration from Europe, ever since the first settlement of the country, yet there is no reason to doubt that the growth of the population is chiefly owing to the natural increase of a community, multiplying itself without any check from difficulty of subsistence or want of unoccupied lands. Nor is it a less interesting consideration, that this same facility of self-multiplication will continue to exist for an indefinite period; and that should no external or accidental cause interfere, the United States will, before the end of the present century, form the most numerous Christian community, speaking one language, in the world. The first census was taken in 1790; since which period there have been six decennial enumerations; their results are stated in the table.

The colored population of the United States, in which are included not only the negro, but also the mulatto and mixed races, forms about one-seventh of the total population. The free blacks are not generally admitted to political equality with the whites; in some states, indeed, their testimony is not admitted against a white man, and they are subject to some other civil disabilities. Slavery has been abolished in all the north-eastern states, and prospectively in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and its establishment was forbidden, by the ordinance of 1787, in all the states north-west of the Ohio, and subsequently in those north of 36° 30' beyond the Mississippi, except the state of Missouri. Maritime slave-trade has been declared piracy; but a great and active inland trade is carried on from the Atlantic slave states to the new states in the south and west, and it is believed that the number clandestinely introduced from Africa has also been considerable, even since the trade was declared illegal. The free colored population amounts to about half a million.

## PROGRESSIVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

| States.               | 1790.     | 1800.     | 1810.     | 1820.     | 1830.      | 1840.      | 1850.      |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
| Maine.....            | 96,540    | 151,719   | 228,705   | 298,335   | 399,955    | 501,793    | 582,026    |
| New Hampshire....     | 141,899   | 183,762   | 214,360   | 244,161   | 269,328    | 284,574    | 317,999    |
| Vermont.....          | 85,416    | 154,465   | 217,713   | 285,764   | 280,652    | 291,948    | 315,846    |
| Massachusetts.....    | 378,717   | 423,245   | 472,040   | 523,287   | 610,408    | 787,699    | 994,724    |
| Rhode Island.....     | 69,110    | 69,122    | 77,081    | 88,059    | 97,199     | 108,830    | 147,549    |
| Connecticut.....      | 238,141   | 251,002   | 262,042   | 275,202   | 297,665    | 309,978    | 371,982    |
| New York.....         | 340,120   | 586,756   | 959,949   | 1,372,812 | 1,918,608  | 2,428,921  | 3,099,249  |
| New Jersey.....       | 184,139   | 211,949   | 249,555   | 277,575   | 320,823    | 373,806    | 490,673    |
| Pennsylvania.....     | 484,373   | 602,365   | 810,091   | 1,049,458 | 1,348,233  | 1,724,033  | 2,311,204  |
| Delaware.....         | 59,098    | 64,273    | 72,674    | 72,749    | 76,748     | 78,085     | 90,407     |
| Maryland.....         | 319,728   | 341,548   | 380,546   | 407,350   | 447,040    | 470,019    | 583,056    |
| Virginia.....         | 748,308   | 880,200   | 974,642   | 1,065,379 | 1,211,405  | 1,299,797  | 1,421,863  |
| North Carolina.....   | 393,751   | 478,103   | 555,500   | 638,829   | 737,987    | 753,419    | 870,509    |
| South Carolina.....   | 249,073   | 345,591   | 415,715   | 502,741   | 581,185    | 594,808    | 668,099    |
| Georgia.....          | 82,648    | 162,101   | 252,433   | 340,987   | 516,823    | 691,392    | 906,000    |
| Florida.....          |           |           |           |           | 84,730     | 54,477     | 87,000     |
| Alabama.....          |           |           | 20,845    | 127,901   | 309,527    | 590,756    | 770,000    |
| Mississippi.....      |           | 8,850     | 40,352    | 75,448    | 136,021    | 375,951    | 606,577    |
| Louisiana.....        |           |           | 76,556    | 153,407   | 215,789    | 352,411    | 511,000    |
| Arkansas.....         |           |           |           | 14,273    | 50,388     | 97,574     | 208,776    |
| Tennessee.....        | 30,791    | 105,602   | 261,727   | 422,813   | 681,904    | 829,210    | 1,002,000  |
| Kentucky.....         | 73,077    | 220,955   | 406,511   | 564,317   | 687,917    | 779,828    | 983,344    |
| Ohio.....             |           | 45,365    | 230,760   | 581,494   | 937,903    | 1,519,467  | 1,983,140  |
| Michigan.....         |           |           | 4,762     | 8,896     | 31,639     | 212,267    | 397,576    |
| Indiana.....          |           | 4,875     | 24,520    | 147,178   | 343,031    | 585,866    | 990,258    |
| Illinois.....         |           |           | 12,282    | 55,211    | 157,455    | 476,183    | 850,000    |
| Missouri.....         |           |           | 20,845    | 66,586    | 140,445    | 383,702    | 681,547    |
| District of Columbia, |           | 14,093    | 24,023    | 33,039    | 39,884     | 43,712     | 54,000     |
| Wisconsin.....        |           |           |           |           |            | 30,945     | 305,538    |
| Iowa.....             |           |           |           |           |            | 43,112     | 192,974    |
| California.....       |           |           |           |           |            |            | 165,000    |
| Texas.....            |           |           |           |           |            |            | 212,000    |
| Total.....            | 3,929,827 | 5,305,925 | 7,239,814 | 9,638,131 | 12,866,920 | 17,063,353 | 23,103,416 |

## SLAVES IN THE UNITED STATES.

| States.               | 1790.   | 1800.   | 1810.     | 1820.     | 1830.     | 1840.     | 1850.     |
|-----------------------|---------|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Maine.....            | 0       | 0       | 0         | 0         | 0         | 0         | 0         |
| New Hampshire....     | 158     | 8       | 0         | 0         | 0         | 1         | 0         |
| Vermont.....          | 17      | 0       | 0         | 0         | 0         | 0         | 0         |
| Massachusetts.....    | 0       | 0       | 0         | 0         | 0         | 0         | 0         |
| Rhode Island.....     | 952     | 381     | 103       | 48        | 17        | 5         | 0         |
| Connecticut.....      | 2,759   | 951     | 810       | 97        | 25        | 17        | 0         |
| New York.....         | 21,324  | 20,343  | 15,017    | 10,088    | 75        | 4         | 0         |
| New Jersey.....       | 11,423  | 12,422  | 10,851    | 7,657     | 2,254     | 674       | 52        |
| Pennsylvania.....     | 3,737   | 1,706   | 795       | 211       | 403       | 64        | .....     |
| Delaware.....         | 8,887   | 6,153   | 4,177     | 4,509     | 3,292     | 2,605     | 2,332     |
| Maryland.....         | 103,036 | 105,635 | 111,502   | 107,398   | 102,294   | 89,787    | 90,355    |
| Virginia.....         | 203,427 | 345,796 | 392,518   | 425,153   | 469,757   | 448,987   | 475,972   |
| North Carolina.....   | 100,572 | 133,296 | 168,824   | 295,017   | 235,601   | 245,817   | 280,000   |
| South Carolina.....   | 107,094 | 146,151 | 196,365   | 258,475   | 315,401   | 327,038   | 350,000   |
| Georgia.....          | 29,264  | 59,404  | 105,218   | 149,656   | 217,531   | 280,944   | 365,000   |
| Alabama.....          |         |         |           | 41,879    | 117,549   | 253,532   | 330,000   |
| Mississippi.....      |         |         | 17,088    | 32,814    | 65,659    | 195,211   | 320,000   |
| Louisiana.....        |         | 3,489   | 34,660    | 69,064    | 109,588   | 163,452   | 200,000   |
| Arkansas.....         |         |         |           | 1,617     | 4,576     | 19,935    | 45,000    |
| Tennessee.....        | 3,417   | 13,584  | 44,585    | 80,107    | 141,603   | 183,059   | 250,000   |
| Kentucky.....         | 11,830  | 40,343  | 80,581    | 126,732   | 165,213   | 182,258   | 211,237   |
| Ohio.....             |         |         |           |           | 0         | 3         | .....     |
| Michigan.....         |         |         | 24        |           | 32        | 0         | .....     |
| Indiana.....          |         | 135     | 237       | 190       | 0         | 3         | .....     |
| Illinois.....         |         |         | 163       | 117       | 747       | 831       | .....     |
| Missouri.....         |         |         | 3,011     | 10,222    | 25,081    | 58,240    | 87,617    |
| District of Columbia, |         | 3,244   | 6,395     | 6,377     | 6,119     | 4,694     | 1,000     |
| Florida.....          |         |         |           |           | 15,501    | 25,717    | 22,000    |
| Wisconsin.....        |         |         |           |           |           | 11        | .....     |
| Iowa.....             |         |         |           |           |           | 16        | .....     |
| California.....       |         |         |           |           |           |           | .....     |
| Texas.....            |         |         |           |           |           |           | 60,000    |
| Total.....            | 697,897 | 893,041 | 1,191,364 | 1,538,064 | 2,009,031 | 2,487,355 | 3,070,565 |



It will be seen by reference to the table that the non-slaveholding states are: Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, and California. The slaveholding states are: Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, and Texas. In the District of Columbia slavery is tolerated. New Mexico and Oregon are free from this institution. The slaves form rather more than one-third part of the population of the slaveholding states, but they are unequally distributed, and the whites generally preponderate.

The aboriginal races, or Indians, resident within the territories of the United States, are not included in any of the enumerations. Their total number is unknown, but is estimated at 192,341, of which 23,659 reside in the states east of the Mississippi, and 168,681 west of that river to the Rocky Mountains; on the Pacific coast, in Oregon, California, and New Mexico, however, there are others, the number of which, though unknown, cannot be less than 150,000,—making a grand total of Indians in the Union, of 342,341.

In most of the states east of the Mississippi, the aboriginal inhabitants have become quite extinct. The numerous tribes that once occupied the openings in the great primitive American forests, have disappeared before the advancing tide of civilization. From the Roanoke to the St. Lawrence, the only surviving remnant of the proud and warlike Iroquois tribes, and of the once powerful Algonquins, is but a few thousand men, women, and children, in New England and New York, and a small number in Virginia; but how unlike to their untamed and untameable progenitors. Further south, a stricken few are yet permitted to linger for a while in the land of their birth.

RELIGION. — The constitution of the United States forbids the establishment of religion by law; but every person who does not interrupt the peace of society, is protected in the exercise of his religion. The voluntary principle, as it is sometimes called, has been found to be more efficient than any legal enactment for the support of religious institutions. The union of church and state is generally regarded with aversion by the people, as that which is calculated to corrupt religion, and to afford no benefit to the state; while no people are more deeply sensible of the fact, that the stability, and even the existence, of a free government depends upon the prosperity of religious institutions, and their moral influence upon the principles and habits of the people. This is the great secret of the success of the American experiment, which has presented an example of a free government that has furnished great encouragement to the friends of freedom throughout the world, and already exerts a salutary influence on every civilized nation of the earth. The puritan fathers of New England came to this country to found a religious and intelligent community, they planted the church and the schoolhouse side by side, and the influence of their character, and the principles and habits which they formed and cherished, are now felt to the remotest ends of the nation, and form the surest basis for political and religious freedom. In accordance with the errors of the age in which they lived, they entertained some narrow and bigoted no-

tions, which the advancing light of civilization, and a more correct estimate of things, have removed from the minds of their descendants; but they had noble redeeming qualities, and it is among the encouraging signs of the times, that their memory is held in increasing veneration.

The Americans are decidedly a religious people; and although some fanatical sects have sprung up in the United States, it may be affirmed with truth, that they are equally removed from the excesses of fanaticism and irreligion. Travelers from foreign countries bear testimony to the sound spirit of morals which prevails in the country, and to the respect paid everywhere to the public services of religion.

The religious societies of America have done much towards the establishment and consolidation of the Sunday School system. All have united in the work, and there is now scarcely a child who has not the benefit of these institutions; and the amount of good they are influential in effecting, will no doubt be exhibited in the future well being of the people.

The relative importance of the various sects are set forth, and full details of the present condition of the churches are given in the tables of Ecclesiastical Statistics. It will be seen that the voluntary principle is very efficient in the United States in the support of religious institutions.

The general equality of sects is found to abate religious animosity without relaxing zeal. In the populous parts of the country the clergy are sufficiently numerous and well provided for, but in many of the remote districts there is a deficiency of spiritual teachers, although the travelling missionaries of the various sects penetrate to the confines of civilization, to impart the blessings of religion to the log-cabin dwellers of the western frontier.

The following exhibit of the present condition of the various churches is derived mainly from the official returns of 1850.

The Regular Baptists have 17 colleges, with 1,642 students; 7 theological schools, with 139 students, besides numerous academies. In connexion with this denomination are several societies, viz:

The American Baptist Missionary Union, sustains missions in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. Summary: 17 missions, embracing 63 stations, and 135 out stations; 54 missionaries, of whom 49 are preachers; 55 female assistant missionaries; 194 native preachers and assistants; 148 churches, with 11,534 members; 50 schools, with 1,472 pupils.

The American Baptist Home Mission Society, employs missionaries in 18 States, and in Oregon, California, and Canada. In 1850, it employed 134 missionaries and agents, supplying 453 stations. Since its organization in 1832, it has constituted 673 churches, and ordained 312 ministers.

The American and Foreign Bible Society, organized in 1836. Receipts for 1849, \$39,840 86. Issued 13,538 bibles, and 26,590 testaments.

The Bible Union, organized in 1850.

The American Baptist Publication Society, organized in 1849. Receipts for 1849-50, \$25,416 38.

Southern Baptist Convention, engaged in foreign and home missions, Receipts for 1849, \$14,042.

Periodicals, 22 weekly, 1 semi-monthly, 16 monthly, 1 bi-monthly, and 1 quarterly.



## BAPTIST DENOMINATIONS.

| States.                    | REGULAR.      |           |                 |             |          | ANTI-MISSION. |           |                 |             |          |
|----------------------------|---------------|-----------|-----------------|-------------|----------|---------------|-----------|-----------------|-------------|----------|
|                            | Associations. | Churches. | Ord. Ministers. | Licentiate. | Members. | Associations. | Churches. | Ord. Ministers. | Licentiate. | Members. |
| Maine .....                | 13            | 295       | 201             | 20          | 19,957   | 1             | 6         | 4               | 1           | 178      |
| New Hampshire .....        | 7             | 96        | 73              | 14          | 8,523    | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Vermont .....              | 8             | 112       | 71              | 10          | 8,092    | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Massachusetts .....        | 12            | 238       | 246             | 37          | 29,876   | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Rhode Island .....         | 2             | 48        | 55              | 7           | 7,153    | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Connecticut .....          | 7             | 113       | 114             | 13          | 15,916   | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| New York .....             | 41            | 794       | 705             | 132         | 84,243   | 2             | 19        | 11              | 3           | 549      |
| New Jersey .....           | 4             | 89        | 88              | 14          | 12,121   | 1             | 7         | 4               | 1           | 238      |
| Pennsylvania .....         | 16            | 306       | 213             | 49          | 27,678   | 2             | 16        | 12              | 2           | 639      |
| Delaware .....             | ..            | 1         | 2               | 2           | 352      | 1             | 9         | 3               | ..          | 251      |
| Maryland .....             | 1             | 22        | 18              | 2           | 2,004    | 2             | 18        | 9               | 1           | 393      |
| District of Columbia ..... | ..            | 4         | 5               | 1           | 692      | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Virginia .....             | 24            | 553       | 272             | 81          | 81,344   | 9             | 92        | 41              | 3           | 4,083    |
| North Carolina .....       | 20            | 448       | 236             | 75          | 36,730   | 10            | 158       | 98              | 8           | 5,692    |
| South Carolina .....       | 14            | 408       | 188             | 72          | 41,638   | 2             | 20        | 13              | 1           | 483      |
| Georgia .....              | 30            | 719       | 387             | 157         | 55,155   | 21            | 354       | 148             | 26          | 11,704   |
| Florida .....              | 3             | 51        | 25              | 8           | 2,115    | ..            | 17        | 9               | 2           | 655      |
| Alabama .....              | 18            | 516       | 233             | 69          | 36,421   | 16            | 221       | 68              | 5           | 7,582    |
| Mississippi .....          | 16            | 382       | 181             | 42          | 22,718   | 7             | 48        | 20              | 2           | 1,560    |
| Louisiana .....            | 6             | 96        | 40              | 12          | 3,749    | 1             | 4         | 2               | ..          | 83       |
| Texas .....                | 3             | 36        | 27              | 5           | 1,361    | 1             | 8         | 4               | 1           | 172      |
| Arkansas .....             | 6             | 78        | 39              | 10          | 2,509    | 2             | 26        | 10              | 2           | 430      |
| Tennessee .....            | 18            | 455       | 233             | 79          | 34,097   | 17            | 268       | 129             | 16          | 9,843    |
| Kentucky .....             | 40            | 713       | 554             | 127         | 62,598   | 15            | 176       | 73              | 10          | 6,972    |
| Ohio .....                 | 27            | 464       | 294             | 70          | 24,561   | 9             | 128       | 47              | 5           | 3,341    |
| Indiana .....              | 24            | 392       | 191             | 47          | 18,311   | 12            | 143       | 62              | 10          | 4,783    |
| Illinois .....             | 22            | 320       | 210             | 53          | 13,441   | 14            | 161       | 79              | 5           | 3,905    |
| Missouri .....             | 22            | 370       | 194             | 62          | 19,523   | 11            | 126       | 58              | 8           | 4,031    |
| Michigan .....             | 10            | 176       | 105             | 14          | 8,175    | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Wisconsin .....            | 4             | 55        | 40              | 9           | 2,560    | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Iowa .....                 | 2             | 37        | 22              | 3           | 1,142    | 1             | 10        | 5               | 2           | 238      |
| Minnesota .....            | ..            | 1         | 2               | ..          | 12       | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Minnesota Territory .....  | ..            | 1         | 2               | ..          | 12       | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Indian Territory .....     | ..            | 23        | 20              | 7           | 1,946    | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Oregon .....               | 1             | 5         | 4               | ..          | 63       | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| California .....           | ..            | ..        | 4               | ..          | 28       | ..            | ..        | ..              | ..          | .....    |
| Totals .....               | 521           | 8,206     | 5,142           | 1,302       | 686,807  | 157           | 2,035     | 907             | 113         | 67,845   |

The statistics of the minor sects of Baptists are, as near as can be ascertained, as follows:

## MINOR SECTS OF BAPTISTS.

| Names.                                 | Churches. | Ministers. | Members. |
|----------------------------------------|-----------|------------|----------|
| Free-Will Baptists .....               | 1,252     | 1,082      | 56,452   |
| Six Principle .....                    | 21        | 25         | 3,586    |
| Seventh Day .....                      | 52        | 43         | 6,243    |
| Church of God, (Winebrennerians) ..... | 97        | 128        | 10,102   |
| Brethren, (Tunkers) .....              | 152       | 160        | 7,349    |
| Disciples, (Campbellites) .....        | 1,398     | 848        | 118,618  |
| Christian Connexion .....              | 607       | 498        | 33,640   |

The Old School Presbyterians have under their supervision several of the oldest and most respectable colleges, especially in the southern and western states; also, theological schools at Princeton, N. J., Alleghany City, Pa., Prince Edward County, Va., Columbia, S. C., New Albany, Ia., and a large number of parochial and Sunday Schools. They support missions to the United States Indians, and in Western Africa, India, Siam, China and Papal Europe, and domestic missions throughout the States. The number of periodicals devoted to old Presbyterianism, is one annual,

one quarterly, two monthly, and seven weekly newspapers. The annual amount contributed for religious purposes, is not far from \$400,000.

## OLD SCHOOL PRESBYTERIANS.

| Names of Synods.       | Presbyteries. | Churches. | Ministers. | Communicants. | Names of Synods.     | Presbyteries. | Churches. | Ministers. | Communicants. |
|------------------------|---------------|-----------|------------|---------------|----------------------|---------------|-----------|------------|---------------|
| Albany, N. Y. ....     | 5             | 55        | 86         | 8,420         | Missouri .....       | 6             | 78        | 46         | 4,237         |
| Buffalo, " .....       | 5             | 49        | 52         | 4,018         | Kentucky .....       | 5             | 144       | 80         | 9,586         |
| New York .....         | 9             | 98        | 131        | 13,408        | Virginia .....       | 6             | 155       | 123        | 11,255        |
| New Jersey .....       | 3             | 155       | 174        | 19,353        | North Carolina ..... | 3             | 146       | 88         | 9,910         |
| Philadelphia .....     | 3             | 290       | 193        | 27,657        | South Carolina ..... | 4             | 105       | 74         | 8,138         |
| Pittsburgh .....       | 7             | 208       | 141        | 22,230        | Georgia .....        | 5             | 108       | 71         | 4,674         |
| Wheeling .....         | 4             | 111       | 64         | 10,599        | Alabama .....        | 3             | 96        | 51         | 5,062         |
| Ohio .....             | 7             | 151       | 88         | 11,150        | Mississippi .....    | 4             | 104       | 75         | 4,980         |
| Cincinnati .....       | 6             | 127       | 91         | 9,765         | Nashville .....      | 5             | 43        | 35         | 3,809         |
| Indiana .....          | 6             | 105       | 67         | 5,657         | Memphis .....        | 6             | 39        | 49         | 5,053         |
| Northern Indiana ..... | 5             | 97        | 44         | 3,746         |                      |               |           |            |               |
| Illinois .....         | 7             | 135       | 83         | 4,435         |                      |               |           |            |               |
|                        |               |           |            |               | Total .....          | 124           | 1,906     | 2,589      | 207,144       |

## NEW SCHOOL PRESBYTERIANS.

| Names of Synods.       | Presbyteries. | Churches. | Ministers. | Communicants. | Names of Synods.     | Presbyteries. | Churches. | Ministers. | Communicants. |
|------------------------|---------------|-----------|------------|---------------|----------------------|---------------|-----------|------------|---------------|
| Genesee, ..... N. Y.   | 6             | 145       | 136        | 16,046        | Illinois .....       | 5             | 62        | 53         | 3,407         |
| Albany .....           | 7             | 106       | 124        | 13,409        | Peoria, ..... Ill.   | 4             | 46        | 52         | 2,230         |
| Utica, ..... "         | 5             | 98        | 90         | 9,780         | Missouri .....       | 4             | 50        | 33         | 1,832         |
| Geneva .....           | 10            | 195       | 197        | 20,730        | Michigan .....       | 7             | 106       | 84         | 6,591         |
| N. York and N. Jersey, | 9             | 118       | 158        | 21,971        | Kentucky .....       | 3             | 21        | 14         | 954           |
| Pennsylvania .....     | 5             | 68        | 66         | 10,889        | Virginia .....       | 3             | 39        | 39         | 3,659         |
| Western Pennsylvania,  | 3             | 35        | 19         | 2,366         | Tennessee .....      | 5             | 73        | 40         | 5,422         |
| Western Reserve, Ohio, | 8             | 146       | 130        | 9,625         | West Tennessee ..... | 3             | 34        | 23         | 2,021         |
| Ohio .....             | 5             | 70        | 54         | 5,218         | Mississippi .....    | 3             | 19        | 13         | 857           |
| Cincinnati .....       | 3             | 49        | 40         | 3,889         |                      |               |           |            |               |
| Indiana .....          | 7             | 101       | 60         | 4,460         |                      |               |           |            |               |
|                        |               |           |            |               | Total .....          | 105           | 1,581     | 1,430      | 145,416       |

The Cumberland Presbyterian church, in the aggregate, consists of 570 congregations, 350 ministers, and about 60,000 communicants. Its operations are chiefly confined to the western states, where it took its rise a few years past. Its doctrines are substantially those of the new school, with which, as with all the other Presbyterian sects, it holds friendly correspondence.

The Associate Presbyterian church numbers 19 presbyteries, 231 congregations, 134 ministers, and 17,834 communicants.

The Associate Reformed Presbyterian church consists of 314 churches, 215 ministers, and 26,250 communicants.

The Reformed Presbyterian is a small church under a general synod. It consists of 5 presbyteries, 33 ministers, 7 licensed preachers, 15 theological students, 56 congregations, and about 6,000 communicants. It has a theological seminary at Philadelphia, and supports a mission in Northern India.

There are several other denominations of Presbyterians, but so insignificant are they in extent and influence, that it has been impossible to find any one acquainted with their statistics.



## MINOR SECTS OF PRESBYTERIANS.

| ASSOCIATE.             |                   |                |            |           |               | ASSOCIATE REFORMED.                                                              |    |               |           |            |          |
|------------------------|-------------------|----------------|------------|-----------|---------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|---------------|-----------|------------|----------|
| Names of Presbyteries. |                   | Congregations. | Ministers. | Families. | Communicants. | Names of Synods.                                                                 |    | Presbyteries. | Churches. | Ministers. | Members. |
| First Synod.           | Cambridge.....    | 11             | 7          | 367       | 887           | Synod of New York...                                                             |    | 5             | 40        | 44         | 4,600    |
|                        | Ohio.....         | 15             | 7          | 603       | 1,260         | First Synod of the<br>West—( <i>Pennsylvania</i><br>and <i>Ohio</i> )....        |    | 5             | 111       | 67         | 9,660    |
|                        | Chartiers.....    | 17             | 11         | 1,007     | 2,246         |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Miami.....        | 22             | 9          | 404       | 854           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Philadelphia..... | 16             | 6          | 237       | 790           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Alleghany.....    | 23             | 10         | 649       | 1,892         | Second Synod of the<br>West—( <i>Ohio</i> and<br><i>Indiana</i> ).....           |    | 8             | 118       | 69         | 6,490    |
|                        | Muskingum.....    | 22             | 11         | 720       | 1,670         |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Albany.....       | 7              | 3          | 244       | 633           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Chenango.....     | 23             | 10         | 1,005     | 2,180         |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Stamford.....     | 6              | 3          | 35        | 521           | Synod of the South—<br>( <i>North</i> and <i>South</i><br><i>Carolina</i> )..... |    | 6             | 45        | 35         | 5,500    |
|                        | Indiana.....      | 14             | 5          | 250       | 850           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Illinois.....     | 13             | 2          | 139       | 311           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Richland.....     | 16             | 4          | 295       | 661           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
| Iowa.....              | 9                 | 4              | 99         | 329       | Total.....    |                                                                                  | 24 | 314           | 215       | 26,250     |          |
| Itinerating.....       | ..                | 26             | ....       | ....      |               |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
| 2d Synod.              | Total.....        | 214            | 118        | 6,054     | 14,984        |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Cambridge.....    | 3              | 6          | 177       | 419           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | New York.....     | 8              | 6          | 576       | 1,783         |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Vermont.....      | 3              | 2          | 133       | 345           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Illinois.....     | 4              | 2          | 124       | 302           |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
|                        | Total.....        | 18             | 16         | 1,010     | 2,850         |                                                                                  |    |               |           |            |          |
| Grand total.....       |                   | 231            | 134        | 7,064     | 17,834        | Total.....                                                                       |    | 24            | 314       | 215        | 26,250   |

## CONGREGATIONALISTS.

| ORTHODOX.               |           |            |          | UNITARIAN.                     |                |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|----------|--------------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|
| General Associations.   | Churches. | Ministers. | Members. | States.                        | Congregations. | Settled Pastors.       | Ministers without Parishes. | Communicants.             | In Connection.             |
| Massachusetts . . . . . | 478       | 473        | 56,103   | Maine . . . . .                | 15             | Estimated at about 200 | Estimated at about 60       | Estimated at about 30,000 | Estimated at about 300,000 |
| Maine . . . . .         | 217       | 166        | 17,504   | New Hampshire . . . . .        | 24             |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Connecticut . . . . .   | 256       | 239        | 36,380   | Vermont . . . . .              | 6              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Rhode Island . . . . .  | 20        | 16         | 2,770    | Massachusetts . . . . .        | 162            |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| New Hampshire . . . . . | 183       | 181        | 22,790   | Connecticut . . . . .          | 4              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Vermont . . . . .       | 194       | 190        | 20,209   | Rhode Island . . . . .         | 3              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| New York . . . . .      | 138       | 123        | 6,719    | New York . . . . .             | 13             |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Pennsylvania . . . . .  | 16        | 9          | 456      | Pennsylvania . . . . .         | 3              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Ohio . . . . .          | 94        | 15         | 5,506    | Maryland . . . . .             | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Indiana . . . . .       | 9         | 6          |          | District of Columbia . . . . . | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Illinois . . . . .      | 75        | 50         | 3,471    | South Carolina . . . . .       | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Michigan . . . . .      | 70        | 50         | 2,114    | Georgia . . . . .              | 13             |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Wisconsin . . . . .     | 86        | 68         | 2,736    | Louisiana . . . . .            | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Iowa . . . . .          | 34        | 26         | 910      | Kentucky . . . . .             | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|                         |           |            |          | Ohio . . . . .                 | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|                         |           |            |          | Indiana . . . . .              | 12             |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|                         |           |            |          | Illinois . . . . .             | 8              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|                         |           |            |          | Missouri . . . . .             | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|                         |           |            |          | Wisconsin . . . . .            | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
|                         |           |            |          | Alabama . . . . .              | 1              |                        |                             |                           |                            |
| Total . . . . .         | 1,867     | 1,612      | 177,668  | Total . . . . .                | 251            |                        |                             |                           |                            |

The Congregationalists rank next to the Presbyterians in point of numbers. The churches planted by the pilgrims were all of this denomination. Prior to the present century they were confined chiefly to the New England states, but are spreading extensively through the middle and western

states. They have under their charge, 18 colleges, and a number of theological seminaries, besides missions, bible and publication societies in every part of the Union.

## METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

| CONFERENCES.           | PREACHERS. |      |        | CHURCH MEMBERS. |          |         | SUNDAY-SCHOOLS. |           |           |
|------------------------|------------|------|--------|-----------------|----------|---------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|
|                        | Trav.      | Sup. | Local. | Whites.         | Col.&In. | Total.  | Schools.        | Teachers. | Scholars. |
| Baltimore.....         | 253        | 25   | 303    | 53,053          | 15,802   | 68,855  | 589             | 7,112     | 33,805    |
| Philadelphia.....      | 147        | 6    | 319    | 41,736          | 8,988    | 50,674  | 380             | 5,145     | 31,792    |
| New Jersey.....        | 161        | 7    | 193    | 33,184          | 628      | 33,812  | 400             | 4,777     | 26,491    |
| New York.....          | 169        | 8    | 131    | 26,868          | .....    | 26,868  | 268             | 2,631     | 15,221    |
| New York, East.....    | 137        | 16   | 109    | 21,428          | .....    | 21,428  | 193             | 2,933     | 15,557    |
| Providence.....        | 112        | 19   | 86     | 14,070          | .....    | 14,070  | 136             | 1,855     | 10,729    |
| New England.....       | 112        | 27   | 80     | 13,929          | .....    | 13,929  | 102             | 1,682     | 10,069    |
| Maine.....             | 89         | 18   | 80     | 10,585          | .....    | 10,585  | 99              | 1,308     | 6,796     |
| East Maine.....        | 70         | 14   | 62     | 1,022           | .....    | 1,022   | 115             | 1,128     | 5,721     |
| New Hampshire.....     | 82         | 19   | 60     | 9,330           | .....    | 9,330   | 109             | 1,182     | 6,917     |
| Vermont.....           | 63         | 13   | 58     | 7,849           | .....    | 7,849   | 101             | 878       | 5,001     |
| Troy.....              | 197        | 16   | 140    | 25,636          | .....    | 25,636  | 327             | 3,305     | 15,100    |
| Black River, N. Y..... | 130        | 12   | 141    | 18,404          | .....    | 18,404  | 214             | 1,964     | 8,537     |
| Oneida.....            | 172        | 80   | 182    | 27,069          | .....    | 27,069  | 387             | 3,689     | 17,524    |
| Genesee.....           | 82         | 7    | 113    | 10,697          | .....    | 10,697  | 188             | 1,881     | 8,367     |
| East Genesee.....      | 115        | 21   | 148    | 18,133          | 33       | 18,166  | 255             | 2,444     | 11,075    |
| Erie, Pa.....          | 139        | 16   | 207    | 21,459          | 48       | 21,507  | 394             | 3,591     | 16,607    |
| Pittsburgh.....        | 155        | 15   | 213    | 35,298          | 118      | 35,411  | 349             | 4,173     | 20,126    |
| West Virginia.....     | 55         | ..   | 119    | 13,799          | 382      | 14,181  | 109             | 925       | 4,232     |
| Ohio.....              | 280        | 11   | 502    | 63,279          | 402      | 63,681  | 698             | 7,521     | 39,166    |
| North Ohio.....        | 141        | 9    | 254    | 26,816          | 24       | 26,840  | 317             | 3,559     | 18,843    |
| Michigan.....          | 118        | 12   | 185    | 15,637          | 596      | 16,233  | 227             | 2,024     | 9,665     |
| Indiana.....           | 133        | 4    | 280    | 35,337          | 144      | 35,481  | 340             | 3,154     | 16,329    |
| North Indiana.....     | 122        | 12   | 269    | 28,292          | 32       | 28,324  | 350             | 2,974     | 16,667    |
| Rock River.....        | 91         | 13   | 219    | 14,346          | 14       | 14,360  | 204             | 1,848     | 8,664     |
| Iowa.....              | 57         | 1    | 121    | 9,788           | 30       | 9,818   | 133             | 1,090     | 5,596     |
| Illinois.....          | 139        | 9    | 463    | 29,867          | 36       | 29,903  | 417             | 3,146     | 15,696    |
| Wisconsin.....         | 72         | 4    | 152    | 6,884           | 181      | 7,065   | 108             | 864       | 3,289     |
| Missouri.....          | 41         | ..   | 61     | 3,179           | 412      | 3,591   | .....           | .....     | .....     |
| Oregon.....            | 12         | ..   | 18     | 404             | .....    | 404     | 9               | 43        | 261       |
| Liberia Mission.....   | 14         | ..   | 14     | .....           | 1,117    | 1,117   | 20              | 114       | 810       |
| Total.....             | 3,660      | 364  | 5,292  | 637,373         | 28,937   | 666,310 | 7,428           | 78,840    | 403,653   |

## METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SOUTH.

| CONFERENCES.         | PREACHERS. |      |        | CHURCH MEMBERS. |            |         | SUNDAY-SCHOOLS. |          |           |
|----------------------|------------|------|--------|-----------------|------------|---------|-----------------|----------|-----------|
|                      | Trav.      | Sup. | Local. | Whites.         | Col. & In. | Total.  | Schools.        | T'chers. | Scholars. |
| Kentucky.....        | 106        | 7    | 235    | 23,581          | 5,325      | 28,906  | 83              | 640      | 4,097     |
| St. Louis.....       | 64         | 2    | 145    | 13,272          | 1,012      | 14,284  | 63              | 527      | 3,116     |
| Missouri.....        | 57         | 5    | 87     | 11,193          | 1,803      | 12,996  | ..              | ..       | .....     |
| Louisville.....      | 66         | 5    | 181    | 16,852          | 3,172      | 20,024  | ..              | ..       | .....     |
| Holston.....         | 87         | 8    | 324    | 34,733          | 3,525      | 38,258  | 114             | 690      | 5,305     |
| Indian Missions..... | 41         | ..   | 39     | 159             | 3,599      | 3,758   | ..              | ..       | .....     |
| Tennessee.....       | 142        | 7    | 390    | 34,922          | 7,924      | 42,846  | 139             | 855      | 5,106     |
| Virginia.....        | 115        | 2    | 184    | 30,938          | 5,891      | 36,829  | 147             | 781      | 5,784     |
| Arkansas.....        | 60         | 4    | 153    | 10,332          | 1,819      | 12,151  | 23              | 54       | 642       |
| Memphis.....         | 108        | 5    | 370    | 28,352          | 6,954      | 35,306  | 94              | 722      | 3,506     |
| North Carolina.....  | 70         | 12   | 145    | 21,113          | 6,519      | 27,632  | 134             | 892      | 4,614     |
| Mississippi.....     | 70         | 8    | 182    | 12,960          | 8,655      | 21,615  | 60              | 424      | 2,345     |
| South Carolina.....  | 124        | 16   | 271    | 34,206          | 41,617     | 75,823  | 313             | 1,261    | 6,803     |
| East Texas.....      | 32         | ..   | 85     | 5,347           | 503        | 5,850   | 4               | 25       | 166       |
| Texas.....           | 40         | 2    | 59     | 3,315           | 959        | 4,274   | 16              | 80       | 416       |
| Louisiana.....       | 49         | 4    | 83     | 4,257           | 4,405      | 8,662   | ..              | ..       | .....     |
| Georgia.....         | 143        | 13   | 520    | 43,521          | 16,847     | 60,368  | ..              | ..       | .....     |
| Alabama.....         | 121        | 7    | 445    | 32,745          | 15,346     | 48,091  | 72              | 458      | 2,600     |
| Florida.....         | 43         | 1    | 69     | 4,784           | 2,573      | 7,357   | ..              | ..       | .....     |
| Total.....           | 1,538      | 104  | 3,977  | 366,582         | 137,948    | 504,530 | 1,262           | 7,409    | 44,500    |

## WESLEYAN METHODIST CHURCH.

| CONFERENCES.      | Ministers. | Members. | CONFERENCES.   | Ministers. | Members. |
|-------------------|------------|----------|----------------|------------|----------|
| New York.....     | 26         | 945      | Alleghany..... | 40         | 3,278    |
| New England.....  | 40         | 1,991    | Miami.....     | 55         | 2,110    |
| Champlain.....    | 25         | 1,300    | Michigan.....  | 50         | 1,566    |
| St. Lawrence..... | 35         | 1,150    | Illinois.....  | 8          | 568      |
| Rochester.....    | 83         | 2,716    | Wisconsin..... | 8          | 250      |



The Episcopal Methodists are more generally diffused throughout the states than any other denomination. They are least numerous in Louisiana, and most numerous in the middle states. The church is divided into north and south, being disagreed on the subject of slavery. They have 8 colleges and 38 seminaries and high schools. Missions are supported in Liberia, Oregon, South America, China, Germany, India, Sweden, and throughout the new states and among the Indians. They also support numerous periodicals and newspapers. The first Methodist society was founded in America in 1766, by Philip Embury, a local preacher, from Ireland, in the city of New York; and the first church was erected in the same place two years afterwards.

The Protestant Episcopal, or Anglican church, which sprang from the old English church, as established by law, previous to the revolution, is the wealthiest of all other denominations, and is constituted of the older classes of American society; but in point of numbers it is far inferior to the Baptists, Congregationalists, Methodists, &c. It is more stationary than any other denomination; being more exclusive and less given to proselytism than any other; and while other churches are recruited by constant immigrations, this has no such accessions, the people of England proper, who would adhere to this church, being but a small portion of those leaving the old countries. They have eight colleges under their charge, and numerous theological seminaries and high schools. Their provisions for missions, bible societies, Sunday schools, &c., are ample. The dioceses are 31 in number, being co-extensive with the states, except in the State of New York, which has two bishops. Missionary bishops superintend the ecclesiastical affairs in the territories, which comprise two divisions—the northern and the southern—which are separated by the compromise line of Missouri, viz: 36° 30' north latitude. In the new states it sometimes happens that the same bishop presides over one, two or more dioceses. The first Episcopal church in America was founded in New York, on the site of the present church of the Holy Trinity, and it is still the most wealthy of all the American churches.

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL—*Anglican.*

| Dioceses.             | Founded. | No. of Clergy. | Communicants. | Dioceses.         | Founded. | No. of Clergy. | Communicants. |
|-----------------------|----------|----------------|---------------|-------------------|----------|----------------|---------------|
| Maine.....            | 1847     | 12             | 704           | Kentucky.....     | 1832     | 28             | 1,005         |
| New Hampshire.....    | 1844     | 8              | 552           | Tennessee.....    | 1834     | 17             | 653           |
| Vermont.....          | 1832     | 23             | .....         | Mississippi.....  | .....    | 17             | 405           |
| Massachusetts.....    | 1797     | 80             | 5,142         | Louisiana.....    | 1844     | 25             | 847           |
| Rhode Island.....     | 1843     | 25             | 2,064         | Michigan.....     | 1836     | 34             | 1,545         |
| Connecticut.....      | 1784     | 106            | 9,360         | Alabama.....      | 1844     | 23             | 718           |
| New York.....         | 1787     | 264            | .....         | Illinois.....     | 1832     | 30             | 1,293         |
| Western New York..... | 1839     | 118            | 7,010         | Florida.....      | .....    | 8              | 264           |
| New Jersey.....       | 1815     | 59             | 3,054         | Indiana.....      | 1825     | 21             | 549           |
| Pennsylvania.....     | 1787     | 144            | 9,937         | Missouri.....     | 1825     | 15             | 600           |
| Delaware.....         | 1841     | 16             | 537           | Wisconsin.....    | .....    | 24             | 2,140         |
| Maryland.....         | 1792     | 123            | 7,133         | Texas.....        | 1846     | 8              | 2,000         |
| Virginia.....         | 1790     | 114            | 5,347         | Iowa Mission..... | .....    | 7              |               |
| North Carolina.....   | 1823     | 39             | 2,137         | Arkansas.....     | 1838     | 4              |               |
| South Carolina.....   | 1795     | 71             | 4,916         |                   |          |                |               |
| Ohio.....             | 1819     | 75             | 4,025         |                   |          |                |               |
| Georgia.....          | 1841     | 25             | 862           | Total.....        |          | 1,595          | 89,359        |

The Roman Catholics are rapidly increasing, in consequence of the great influx of immigrants from Ireland and other Catholic countries. They are most numerous in the Atlantic cities. In Maryland, which was first settled by Catholics, they still form a majority of the people. They have many congregations in Missouri, Illinois, &c., and predominate in Louisiana. The accession of New Mexico and California adds largely to the Catholic strength. The present condition of Catholicity in the United States is fully exhibited in the Catholic Almanac for 1851, and from which we gather our statistics. There are eleven weekly newspapers and one quarterly review supported by the Catholics of the United States. They have 28 colleges; 35 male religious institutions; 65 female religious institutions; 36 literary institutions for young men; 87 female academies, and 108 charitable institutions. Official returns of the Catholic population, 1,334,500; additional estimate for Boston, St. Louis, Oregon, &c., 280,000; total, 1,614,500.

## ROMAN CATHOLICS.

| Dioceses.                | Churches. | Other Stations. | Clergymen in Ministry. | Clergymen otherwise emp'd. | Ecclesiastical Institutions. | Clerical Students. | Male Religious Institutions. | Literary Ins. for Young Men. | Female Rel. Institutions. | Female Academies. | Charitable Institutions. | Catholic Population. |
|--------------------------|-----------|-----------------|------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| Baltimore, Arch.....     | 70        | 10              | 57                     | 46                         | 6                            | 98                 | 7                            | 5                            | 8                         | 7                 | 23                       | 100,000              |
| Philadelphia.....        | 88        | ..              | 93                     | ..                         | 1                            | 30                 | 1                            | 4                            | 3                         | 6                 | 7                        | 170,000              |
| Charleston.....          | 17        | 40              | 16                     | ..                         | 1                            | 5                  | ..                           | ..                           | 1                         | 1                 | 2                        | 5,000                |
| Richmond.....            | 10        | ..              | 8                      | ..                         | ..                           | 2                  | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | 2                 | 3                        | 7,000                |
| Pittsburgh.....          | 67        | ..              | 57                     | ..                         | 2                            | 26                 | 2                            | ..                           | 1                         | 3                 | 2                        | 45,000               |
| Wheeling.....            | 4         | ..              | 6                      | ..                         | 1                            | 6                  | ..                           | 1                            | 1                         | 2                 | ..                       | 5,000                |
| Savannah.....            | 13        | 30              | 12                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | 1                            | 1                            | 1                         | 1                 | 1                        | 5,500                |
| New York, Arch.....      | 70        | 60              | 91                     | 18                         | ..                           | 31                 | 2                            | 3                            | 3                         | 5                 | 14                       | 202,000              |
| Boston.....              | 63        | ..              | 54                     | 7                          | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | 1                            | 1                         | 1                 | 3                        | ..                   |
| Albany.....              | 70        | 40              | 61                     | ..                         | ..                           | 12                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | 4                        | 80,000               |
| Buffalo.....             | 58        | ..              | 53                     | ..                         | 1                            | 12                 | 1                            | 2                            | ..                        | 1                 | 4                        | 70,000               |
| Hartford.....            | 12        | ..              | 14                     | ..                         | ..                           | 7                  | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | 20,000               |
| New Orleans, Arch.....   | 64        | ..              | 71                     | 11                         | 1                            | 8                  | 3                            | 3                            | 7                         | 7                 | 6                        | 170,000              |
| Mobile.....              | 9         | 18              | 12                     | 10                         | 1                            | 5                  | 2                            | 2                            | 2                         | 1                 | 3                        | 11,000               |
| Natchez.....             | 11        | 32              | 11                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | 1                            | 1                            | 1                         | 1                 | 1                        | 10,000               |
| Little Rock.....         | 7         | 12              | 6                      | ..                         | ..                           | 5                  | 1                            | 1                            | ..                        | 1                 | ..                       | ..                   |
| Galveston.....           | 20        | 50              | 13                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | 1                         | 2                 | ..                       | ..                   |
| Cincinnati, Arch.....    | 75        | 30              | 68                     | 12                         | 1                            | 14                 | 3                            | 1                            | 10                        | 6                 | 6                        | 85,000               |
| Louisville.....          | 46        | 76              | 38                     | 17                         | 2                            | 4                  | 3                            | 3                            | 4                         | 10                | 6                        | 35,000               |
| Detroit.....             | 40        | 25              | 30                     | ..                         | 1                            | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | 3                         | 3                 | 2                        | 85,000               |
| Vincennes.....           | 77        | ..              | 38                     | ..                         | 1                            | 10                 | 1                            | 1                            | 2                         | 6                 | 2                        | 50,000               |
| Cleveland.....           | 45        | ..              | 40                     | ..                         | 1                            | 14                 | 1                            | ..                           | 2                         | 3                 | 1                        | 30,000               |
| St. Louis, Arch.....     | 56        | 25              | 60                     | 31                         | 4                            | 24                 | 3                            | 2                            | 6                         | 9                 | 8                        | ..                   |
| Dubuque.....             | 17        | 11              | 25                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | 1                            | 1                            | 1                         | 2                 | ..                       | 8,000                |
| St. Paul's.....          | 6         | 20              | 9                      | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | 1                            | 1                            | 1                         | 1                 | 2                        | 4,000                |
| Nashville.....           | 74        | 61              | 49                     | 5                          | 1                            | 9                  | ..                           | 1                            | 3                         | 3                 | 5                        | 54,000               |
| Chicago.....             | 72        | 38              | 54                     | ..                         | 1                            | ..                 | 2                            | 1                            | 1                         | 1                 | 3                        | 65,000               |
| Milwaukee.....           | ..        | ..              | ..                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Oregon City, Arch.....   | ..        | ..              | ..                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Nesqually.....           | ..        | ..              | ..                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Walla Walla.....         | 12        | 7               | 15                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | 1                            | 1                            | 1                         | 2                 | ..                       | ..                   |
| Fort Hall.....           | ..        | ..              | ..                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Colville.....            | ..        | ..              | ..                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Monterey, Arch.....      | 30        | ..              | 35                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| New Mexico, Ap. Vic..... | 40        | ..              | 40                     | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Indian Territory.....    | 2         | ..              | 5                      | ..                         | ..                           | ..                 | ..                           | ..                           | ..                        | ..                | ..                       | ..                   |
| Totals.....              | 1245      | 585             | 1146                   | 157                        | 28                           | 322                | 35                           | 36                           | 65                        | 87                | 108                      | 1,334,500            |

The German Reformed Church\* in the United States, was formed from the first emigrants from Germany, who settled in the eastern portion of the State of Pennsylvania. A large number of these emigrants came in the early part of the last century from the Palatinate, in Germany, where

\* Communicated by Rev. J. Willard, of Columbus, Ohio.



the German Reformed Church took its rise. The first ecclesiastical organizations were formed between the years 1730 and 1740. The first congregations which were organized were in the eastern part of Pennsylvania, although congregations were established at an early period in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, &c. Many congregations were established by the zealous and indefatigable labors of the Rev. Michael Schlatter, one of the earliest missionaries sent to this country. Many difficulties of no ordinary character, which need not here be referred to, have greatly retarded the growth and extension of this portion of the kingdom of Christ; yet notwithstanding all these difficulties, the German Reformed Church has always preserved its system of doctrine and form of worship, together with what has ever been its peculiar spirit and genius, so that it may be said still to occupy the important position which was boldly and fearlessly taken in dependence upon God, at the time of the reformation in the sixteenth century, to which period it traces its origin. Congregations are now found scattered over the states of Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, New York, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and other states.

The whole church is divided into two synods, the eastern and western. The former includes that portion of the church east of the Alleghany mountains. The latter comprises that portion of the church west of the Alleghany mountains. These synods maintain a regular correspondence, and act with great harmony in furthering the interests of the church as a whole. The German Reformed Church has as yet done but little in the work of foreign missions. The energies of the church have been mostly directed to the foreign German emigrant population, which is found scattered over nearly all the western states, many of whom are destitute of the regular means of grace.

There are two literary institutions, and two theological seminaries under the auspices of this denomination, located at Mercersburg, Pa., and Tiffin, Ohio, which are in a prosperous condition.

The statistics of the German Reformed Church, as nearly as can be ascertained, are as follows:

Ministers, 300.

Congregations, 800.

Members, about 90 000.

The Reformed Dutch Church in North America, derives its origin from the Reformed Church of Holland, which still preserves its doctrinal standards and form of church government. The first churches were planted during the Dutch colonial government. Churches were afterwards formed in the range of the Dutch settlements on Long Island, along the Hudson and Mohawk rivers, and in the northern and middle counties of New Jersey. Of late, the number of churches has considerably increased; and, through missionary effort, several have been organized in Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, &c. These churches are under the care of a general synod, the two particular synods of New York and Albany, and twenty-four classes, twelve of them attached to the particular synod of New York, and twelve to the particular synod of Albany. The latest statistical returns we have been able to procure, show the following results:

Churches.  
291.Ministers.  
302.Families.  
26,141.Congregation.  
120,506.Communicants.  
42,251.

Of the above churches, 215 are in the State of New York. Rutgers College, a literary institution, founded under the auspices of the Reformed

Dutch Church, and the Theological Seminary, are both located at New Brunswick, New Jersey.

The Evangelical Lutheran Church\* in North America, was first organized in the year 1637, among the Swedes and Finns who composed the colony established by the Swedes upon the Delaware, in the present states of Delaware, Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Not long after, (1656,) a church was established at New Amsterdam, (the present New York,) among the emigrants from Holland. But their first minister, Rev. Gaatwater, was compelled to leave the colony, and the church was long persecuted by the state and church authorities of the colony, although toleration was already a fixed principle of policy in the mother country, and was repeatedly enjoined by the directors of the Dutch West India Company, upon their agents and the governors of the New Netherlands.

The great body of the Lutheran Church, in the United States, however, is descended from the German emigrants, who, beginning to settle in New York and Pennsylvania, towards the close of the 17th century, have ever since continued, with but slight intermissions, to flow into this country in still increasing numbers. The first Lutheran church organized among the Germans, was in Falkner's swamp, in the neighborhood of Philadelphia, for which Rev. Justus Falkner was, in 1703, ordained as pastor, by the Swedish ministers assembled in the Wiccacoa church, in Philadelphia. Other churches were soon after organized in New York. In 1732, the Saltzburger, driven by persecution from their native mountains, settled in Georgia, and collected their churches in Ebenezer and Savannah. In 1742, the Rev. Henry Melchior Muehlenberg arrived as a missionary in Pennsylvania, and in 1747, the first Lutheran synod, that of Pennsylvania, &c., was organized in Philadelphia, being composed of the German and Swedish ministers and delegates from their congregations in that region. At that time there were not over *twelve* ministers, and perhaps double that number of congregations connected with the Lutheran church in North America, although its members were found in considerable numbers in the states of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia.

Congregations of the Lutheran church are now found in Nova Scotia and Canada, Maine and Massachusetts, (but one in each of these states,) New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Texas, Tennessee, Missouri, Iowa, Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana and Ohio. It is most firmly established, and its greatest numerical strength lies in the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, New York, and Maryland, although its numbers are considerable in Virginia, the Carolinas, and in some of the north-western states already enumerated. In the Atlantic states, and throughout western Pennsylvania and Ohio generally, the Lutheran population is fast becoming anglicised, although there are many districts in eastern Pennsylvania, where the religious services are still conducted in German exclusively, even among a people whose ancestors settled in those regions more than a century since. In most of our Atlantic seaports, and in many large towns there are numerous congregations, formed chiefly of emigrants, employing the German language exclusively. Such, also, is the case in all the larger western

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\* Communicated by Prof. Reynolds, of Capital University, Columbus, Ohio.



towns, and in the great body of the churches west of Ohio. In Illinois and Wisconsin there is a considerable Norwegian and Swedish population, among whom churches are rapidly organizing, in which the services are generally conducted in the Danish or Swedish language.

The Augsburg Confession, and Luther's Shorter Catechism, as is well known, are the distinguishing symbols of the Lutheran church, in all parts of the world, though in most parts of Germany and in Sweden, the Form of Concord, &c., have been added to these. In the United States, no synod calling itself Lutheran, except the Franckean, has adopted any confession different from the Augustan, although a number adopt this only "*for substance of doctrine.*" Those, however, of Ohio, (joint,) Tennessee and Missouri, receive the whole confessional system, as settled in the 16th century.

The form of church government is a mixture of Congregationalism and Presbyterianism; the congregations generally managing their own affairs, the calling and dismissal of ministers, and the discipline of members, but being united in synods, by which ministers are licensed and ordained, library and theological institutions established and managed, &c. There are thirty-four such synods, sixteen of which are united in what is called a "general synod;" the others, though generally maintaining a friendly intercourse, are independent of each other, except the three synods of Ohio, which form what is called "*the joint synod of Ohio.*" The number of ministers is about 750, congregations 1600, and 160,000 communicants.

## EVANGELICAL LUTHERANS.

| Synods.                | Ministers. | Congregations. | Communicants. | Synods.                   | Ministers. | Congregations. | Communicants. |
|------------------------|------------|----------------|---------------|---------------------------|------------|----------------|---------------|
| New York.....          | 36         | 40             | 7,500         | Ohio.....                 | 30         | 111            | 5,000         |
| Hartwick..... N. Y.    | 20         | 29             | 2,800         | Miami.....                | 23         | 87             | 2,100         |
| Franckean..... "       | 13         | 33             | 2,500         | Wittenberg.....           | 16         | 54             | 2,300         |
| Buffalo..... "         | 6          | 15             | .....         | Eastern Ohio.....         | 80         | 245            | 30,000        |
| Pennsylvania.....      | 69         | 224            | 31,181        | Western Ohio.....         |            |                |               |
| West Pennsylvania..... | 53         | 183            | 13,000        | English Synod, Ohio.....  | 10         | 12             | 700           |
| East Pennsylvania..... | 26         | 50             | 5,700         | Illinois.....             | 8          | 35             | 2,500         |
| Alleghany..... Pa.     | 23         | 82             | 5,700         | Indiana.....              | 6          | 14             | 275           |
| Pittsburgh..... "      | 23         | 75             | 5,000         | Olive Branch.....         | 8          | ...            | ...           |
| Maryland.....          | 35         | 74             | 9,000         | Indiana, 2d.....          | 9          | 18             | 1,600         |
| Virginia.....          | 23         | 39             | 1,700         | Indianapolis, (Ger.)..... | 10         | 20             | 1,700         |
| Western Virginia.....  | 10         | 21             | 1,500         | Michigan.....             | 3          | 12             | 1,200         |
| North Carolina.....    | 12         | 24             | 2,000         | Norwegian.....            | 6          | ...            | ...           |
| South Carolina.....    | 46         | 47             | 3,500         | Wisconsin.....            | 12         | ...            | ...           |
| Tennessee.....         | 22         | 40             | 5,000         | Independent.....          | ...        | ...            | ...           |
| Missouri.....          | 75         | 98             | 12,000        |                           |            |                |               |
| South-West.....        | 7          | 10             | 500           | Total.....                | 707        | .....          | 160,781       |

The Society of Quakers or Friends has eight yearly meetings, viz: New England, held at Newport, R. I.; New York, held in the city of New York; Pennsylvania and New Jersey, held at Philadelphia; Maryland, held at Baltimore; Virginia, held at Cedar Creek and Summerton, alternately; North Carolina, held at New Garden; Ohio, held at Mount Pleasant, and Indiana, held at Richmond, in Wayne county; these include from 120,000 to 150,000 members.

The Hicksites, or Unitarian section of the Quakers, seceded from the original body in 1827. Their doctrines are certain opinions promulgated

by Elias Hicks, of Long Island, denying or invalidating the miraculous conception, divinity and atonement of Christ, and also the authenticity and divine authority of the Holy Scriptures. In this secession some members in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Ohio and Indiana yearly meetings, went off from the original society. They number altogether, from 20,000 to 30,000.

## UNIVERSALISTS.

| STATES.          | Associations. | Societies. | Churches. | Meeting-houses. | Preachers. | STATES.          | Associations. | Societies. | Churches. | Meeting-houses. | Preachers. |
|------------------|---------------|------------|-----------|-----------------|------------|------------------|---------------|------------|-----------|-----------------|------------|
| Maine.....       | 8             | 127        | 45        | 103             | 70         | Wisconsin.....   | 1             | 7          | ..        | 1               | 14         |
| New Hampshire..  | 6             | 96         | 13        | 53              | 38         | Iowa.....        | 1             | 4          | ..        | ..              | 4          |
| Vermont.....     | 4             | 102        | ..        | 76              | 50         | Missouri.....    | 1             | 5          | ..        | 1               | 8          |
| Massachusetts... | 5             | 145        | 64        | 124             | 132        | Tennessee.....   | 1             | ..         | ..        | ..              | 6          |
| Rhode Island.... | 1             | 10         | ..        | 4               | 5          | Maryland.....    | 1             | 3          | ..        | 2               | 3          |
| Connecticut..... | 3             | 31         | ..        | 22              | 19         | Virginia.....    | 1             | 3          | ..        | 3               | 4          |
| New York.....    | 16            | 252        | ..        | 163             | 144        | North Carolina.. | 1             | ..         | 1         | 17              | 1          |
| New Jersey.....  | ..            | 4          | ..        | 2               | 3          | South Carolina.. | 1             | 4          | ..        | 9               | 5          |
| Pennsylvania.... | 5             | 33         | ..        | 15              | 29         | Georgia.....     | 1             | 1          | ..        | 4               | 3          |
| Ohio.....        | 12            | 131        | ..        | 73              | 70         | Alabama.....     | 1             | 3          | ..        | 2               | 3          |
| Michigan.....    | 2             | 31         | ..        | 6               | 24         | Mississippi..... | ..            | ..         | ..        | ..              | 1          |
| Indiana.....     | 9             | 53         | ..        | 12              | 29         | Louisiana.....   | ..            | ..         | ..        | ..              | 1          |
| Illinois.....    | 5             | 35         | ..        | 3               | 22         |                  |               |            |           |                 |            |
| Kentucky.....    | 3             | 17         | ..        | 13              | 20         | Total.....       | 89            | 1097       | 123       | 708             | 708        |

The Protestant Methodists have 770 stationed ministers, 798 churches, and 60,000 communicants. The Reformed Methodists have 75 ministers, and 3,000 members. The German Methodists number 15,000 members, with 800 churches and 500 ministers. The Albright Methodists have 600 churches and 13,000 members.

The Moravians, or United Brethren, in the United States, are said to number about 6,000; these are all considered as missionaries, and are liable to be sent to any part of the world to preach the Gospel.

The above comprise the principal Christian sects. There are a number of other minor denominations, chiefly of local origin and influence.

The statistics of the Ecclesiastical Seminaries of the Roman Catholic church, and of the Protestant Theological Schools, are given in the annexed tables:

## CATHOLIC ECCLESIASTICAL SEMINARIES.

| Names.                                            | Location.                 | Instruct-ors. | Pupils | Under care of the |
|---------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------|--------|-------------------|
| St. Mary's Theological Seminary.....              | Baltimore..... Md.        | 5             | 20     | Sulpitians.       |
| Mount St. Mary's Theological Seminary.....        | Near Emmetsburg.... "     | 3             | 10     | ..                |
| Theological Seminary of St. Charles Borromeo...   | Philadelphia..... Penn.   | 5             | 39     | Lazarists.        |
| Ecclesiastical Seminary.....                      | Fordham..... N. Y.        | 7             | 31     | Jesuits.          |
| Theological Seminary of St. Francis de Sales....  | Milwaukie..... Wis.       | 2             | 6      | ..                |
| St. Louis Theological Seminary.....               | St. Louis..... Mo.        | 5             | 24     | Lazarists.        |
| St. Mary's Ecclesiastical Seminary.....           | Perry Co..... "           | ..            | ..     | ..                |
| St. Michael's Theological Seminary.....           | Near Birmingham.... Penn. | 1             | 12     | ..                |
| Theological Seminary of St. Athanasius.....       | Nashville..... Tenn.      | 3             | 10     | ..                |
| Ecclesiastical Seminary.....                      | Spring Hill..... Ala.     | ..            | ..     | Jesuits.          |
| Ecclesiastical Seminary of St. Vincent of Paul... | Assumption..... La.       | 6             | 11     | Lazarists.        |
| Ecclesiastical Seminary of Bardstown.....         | Bardstown..... Ky.        | ..            | 5      | ..                |
| St. Mary's Theological Seminary.....              | Lebanon..... "            | ..            | 4      | ..                |
| St. Mary's Ecclesiastical Seminary.....           | Chicago..... Ill.         | 3             | ..     | ..                |
| Ecclesiastical Seminary of St. Francis Xavier...  | Cincinnati..... Ohio      | 2             | 10     | Jesuits.          |
| Ecclesiastical Seminary.....                      | Huron Co..... "           | 4             | 7      | ..                |
| St. Mary's Ecclesiastical Seminary.....           | Cleveland..... "          | ..            | 14     | ..                |
| Seminary of St. Thomas.....                       | Detroit..... Mich.        | 2             | 7      | ..                |
| Theological Seminary.....                         | Vincennes..... Ia.        | ..            | 2      | ..                |



## PROTESTANT THEOLOGICAL SCHOOLS.

| Name.                              | Place.              | Denomination.       | Commenced operation. | No. Professors. | Students near 1849-50. | Number educated. | Volumes in Library. |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------|------------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| Bangor Theological Seminary....    | Bangor..... Me.     | Congregational....  | 1816                 | 3               | 37                     | 202              | 7,000               |
| Methodist Gen. Biblical Institute. | Concord..... N. H.  | Methodist.....      | 1847                 | 3               | 40                     | ....             | 2,000               |
| Gilmanton Theological Seminary.    | Gilmanton..... "    | Congregational....  | 1835                 | 3               | 23                     | 69               | 4,300               |
| New Hampton Theol. Seminary..      | New Hampton, "      | Baptist.....        | 1825                 | 2               | 36                     | ....             | 2,000               |
| Theological Seminary.....          | Andover..... Mass.  | Congregational....  | 1807                 | 6               | 87                     | 1,006            | 21,259              |
| Divinity School, Harv. University. | Cambridge.... "     | Cong. Unitarian.... | 1816                 | 2               | 23                     | 239              | 3,000               |
| Theological Institution.....       | Newton..... "       | Baptist.....        | 1825                 | 3               | 33                     | 201              | 5,500               |
| Theol. Department Yale College..   | New Haven... Conn.  | Congregational....  | 1822                 | 4               | 52                     | 596              | 900                 |
| Theol. Inst. of Connecticut.....   | East Windsor. "     | ".....              | 1834                 | 3               | 17                     | 151              | 5,000               |
| Theol. Inst. Episcopal Church....  | New York..... N. Y. | Prot. Episcopal.... | 1817                 | 5               | 64                     | 338              | 10,000              |
| Union Theological Seminary.....    | "..... "            | Presbyterian.....   | 1836                 | 5               | 106                    | 211              | 18,000              |
| Theol. Seminary of Auburn.....     | Auburn..... "       | ".....              | 1821                 | 4               | 30                     | 580              | 6,000               |
| Hamilton Lit. and Theol. Inst....  | Hamilton..... "     | Baptist.....        | 1820                 | 4               | 32                     | 133              | 4,000               |
| Hartwick Seminary.....             | Hartwick..... "     | Lutheran.....       | 1816                 | 2               | 5                      | 52               | 1,250               |
| Theol. Sem. Ass. Ref. Church.....  | Newburg..... "      | Ass. Ref. Church..  | 1836                 | 1               | 11                     | 143              | 8,200               |
| Theol. Sem. Dutch Ref. Church..    | N. Brunswick. N. J. | Dutch Reformed..    | 1784                 | 3               | 36                     | 179              | ....                |
| Theol. Sem. Presbyt. Church.....   | Princeton..... "    | Presbyterian.....   | 1812                 | 5               | 153                    | 1,626            | 11,000              |
| Seminary, Lutheran Church.....     | Gettysburg... Penn. | Evang. Lutheran..   | 1826                 | 2               | 26                     | 200              | 9,000               |
| German Reformed.....               | Mercersburg.. "     | Germ. Ref. Church   | 1825                 | 2               | 18                     | 121              | 6,000               |
| Western Theological Seminary...    | Alleghany T.. "     | Presbyterian.....   | 1825                 | 2               | 48                     | 252              | 6,000               |
| Theological School.....            | Canonsburg... "     | Asso. Church.....   | 1792                 | 2               | 33                     | 147              | 2,000               |
| Theological Seminary.....          | Pittsburgh.... "    | Asso. Reformed..    | 1823                 | 3               | 35                     | 85               | 1,500               |
| Western Theological School.....    | Meadville.... "     | Cong. Unitarian..   | 1844                 | 4               | 40                     | 9                | 8,000               |
| Theological Seminary.....          | Philadelphia. "     | Ref. Presbyterian.  | ....                 | 3               | 13                     | ....             | ....                |
| Epis. Theol. School of Virginia..  | Fairfax Co.... Va.  | Prot. Episcopal.... | 1822                 | 4               | 38                     | 229              | 5,000               |
| Union Theological Seminary.....    | Prince Ed. Co., "   | Presbyterian.....   | 1824                 | 3               | 20                     | 175              | 4,000               |
| Virginia Baptist Seminary.....     | Richmond.... "      | Baptist.....        | 1832                 | 3               | 67                     | ....             | 1,000               |
| Southern Theological Seminary..    | Columbia..... S. C. | Presbyterian.....   | 1831                 | 3               | 24                     | 124              | 4,500               |
| Theological Seminary.....          | Lexington.... "     | Lutheran.....       | 1835                 | 2               | 10                     | 20               | 1,800               |
| Furman Theological Seminary....    | Fairfield Dist. "   | Baptist.....        | 1826                 | 2               | 30                     | 30               | 1,000               |
| Mercer Theological Seminary....    | Penfield..... Ga.   | ".....              | 1833                 | 3               | 4                      | ....             | 1,000               |
| Howard Theological Institution..   | Marion..... Ala.    | ".....              | 1843                 | 2               | 10                     | ....             | 1,000               |
| Western Bap. Theol. Institution.   | Covington.... Ky.   | ".....              | 1840                 | 4               | 18                     | 9                | 2,000               |
| Southwest Theological Seminary.    | Maryville.... Tenn. | Presbyterian.....   | 1821                 | 2               | 24                     | 90               | 6,000               |
| Lane Seminary.....                 | Cincinnati... Ohio. | ".....              | 1829                 | 3               | 36                     | 257              | 10,500              |
| Theol. Dep. Kenyon College.....    | Gambier..... "      | Prot. Episcopal.... | 1823                 | 4               | 4                      | 30               | 4,500               |
| Theol. Dep. Wes. Res. College....  | Hudson..... "       | Presbyterian.....   | 1830                 | 3               | 22                     | 43               | 80                  |
| Granville Theological Department.  | Granville..... "    | Baptist.....        | 1832                 | 2               | 8                      | ....             | 500                 |
| Oberlin Theological Department..   | Oberlin..... "      | Congregational...   | 1834                 | 3               | 20                     | 124              | 250                 |
| Theol. Sem. Ass. Ref. Church.....  | Oxford..... "       | Asso. Reformed..    | 1839                 | 1               | 12                     | 31               | 1,500               |
| Indiana Theological Seminary....   | S. Hanover... Ind.  | Presbyterian.....   | ....                 | . .             | 10                     | ....             | ....                |
| Alton Theological Seminary.....    | Upper Alton. Ill.   | Baptist.....        | 1835                 | . .             | ....                   | ....             | ....                |

EDUCATION. — The people of the United States from the the first settlement of the country, have been very attentive to the cause of popular education, and this cause is continually gaining a stronger hold on the community. It is recommended by all the governors of the states, in their annual messages to their respective legislatures. Most of the older states have respectable funds devoted to the support of common schools, and in the new states the general government has provided funds for the support of schools, by setting apart one 36th section in each township, containing each 1 sq. mile, for the purposes of common education. The amount of land already set apart for educational purposes east of the Mississippi is computed to amount to 8,000,000 of acres. The same spirit is also extending west of the Mississippi, and has penetrated even to the Indian tribes; and the Choctaw nation applied \$18,000 per annum out of the moneys which they receive from the United States, to the support of schools. Knowledge and virtue are regarded as the main pillars of the republic. In less than 20 years from the landing of the pilgrims on the rock of Plymouth, Cambridge college was founded, and numerous similar institutions (perhaps too many,) have been successively established from that day to the present time.

